

# SOCIAL EDUCATION

OFFICIAL JOURNAL, NATIONAL COUNCIL FOR THE SOCIAL STUDIES

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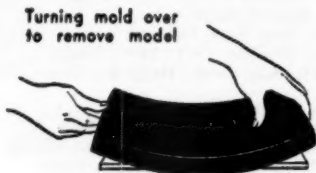
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## Editor's Page

### THE BIG CHANGE

**T**HE BIG CHANGE<sup>1</sup> is Frederick Lewis Allen's latest book. Social studies teachers are familiar with at least two of his earlier works, *Only Yesterday* and *Since Yesterday*, in which he recorded the changing American scene during the 1920's and the 1930's respectively. Both of these earlier books are still widely read; the former, we are told, has sold more than half a million copies. *The Big Change*, which carries the subtitle *America Transforms Itself 1900-1950*, has all the humor and color and charm of Mr. Allen's best writing. It also has a message. Most interesting of all, it is an optimistic message. For the author takes a long and thoughtful look at what has been happening in America during the past half century, and what he sees is not defeat but triumph, not grounds for despair but grounds for hope.

"The story that I propose to tell has deep shadows in it," he comments in the foreword. "Some of those shadows are dark today. It is emphatically not a story of paradise gained. There is no certainty that we have yet learned how to avert economic catastrophe, to say nothing of military catastrophe. Yet in the main it is, I think, a heartening story. In these anxious times we can at least take satisfaction in recalling that the good old days for which some have always yearned were not so good; that we live, despite the wails of the pessimists, in an age of progress; and that it is also—despite the stormy international skies—an age of promise."

### AN AGE OF PROMISE

**O**NE of the interesting features of this book is the kind of evidence the author assembles to demonstrate that Americans are living in "an age of promise." In the index, for example, we find only two passing references to the "atom bomb" and three references to "atomic power." There are, in contrast, nineteen different refer-

ences, some citing several pages of material, to the subjects of "income," "housing" (including "hotels"), and "clothing." In other words, the author does not build his faith in America's future on some near-miraculous and world-shaking development in science or technology. Rather, he looks at the little details of everyday life, and at the millions of ordinary citizens who work and play on the farms and in the villages and towns and cities across the whole broad reach of the United States, and he finds on the record that what they have accomplished, and are accomplishing, is good. Good for those now living, large in promise for all men everywhere.

Perhaps the easiest way to show how Mr. Allen builds his case is to take a quick look at the organization of the book itself. He has divided it into three parts. Part One is concerned with "The Old Order"; Part Two with "The Momentum of Change"; Part Three with "The New America."

In Part One the author takes us back to the opening years of the present century for a look at both sides of the tracks. He leads us inside the homes of men like Andrew Carnegie, whose average annual income between 1896-1900 was about \$10,000,000, with no income tax to pay. This was "at least twenty thousand times greater than that of the average American workman."

After a look at the baronial life of the wealthy, Mr. Allen takes us to "The Other Side of the Tracks" (Chapter 3). And what we see is not pleasant—daily wages of \$1.50 for unskilled workers; average working days of ten hours, six days a week; overcrowding in the slums as immigrants from Europe pour into the country in a mighty flood; child labor, with 26 percent of the ten-to-fifteen year old boys and 10 percent of the girls gainfully employed; and, perhaps worst of all, accidents in shocking numbers. "Consider this set of facts: in the single year 1901, one out of every 399 railroad employees was killed, and one out of every 26 was injured. Among engineers, conductors, brakemen, trainmen, etc., the figures were even worse than this: in that single year, one out of every 137 was killed."

<sup>1</sup> Frederick Lewis Allen. *The Big Change: America Transforms Itself 1900-1950*. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1952. xi + 308 p. \$3.50.

"It had been conditions such as these," the author comments, "appearing wherever the new industrial capitalism seemed to be making its most active forward progress, that had prompted Karl Marx to see if he could not invent a better system."

IN THE second part of his book, Mr. Allen describes the forces that were transforming American life. He shows how the ordinary citizen was affected by mass production; new methods of marketing, including the chain stores; the revolution in transportation; the depression; and the emergence of the United States as "The Reluctant World Power." Most important of all, he shows how the economic system was being reformed, how the wide gap between rich and poor was being steadily closed. And so, step by step, we move with Mr. Allen through "the big change" into the "age of promise."

"*This is something new,*" Mr. Allen says with emphasis, setting his words in italics. "*There has never been anything like it before.*"

AND what, in the larger view, does all this mean? The author gives his answers to this question in the concluding pages of his book. Many observers of the American scene will not agree with all of Mr. Allen's conclusions, and some, no doubt, will strongly disagree, but all will find the conclusions thought-provoking.

In spite of all the evidence to the contrary, we Americans persist in the belief that our system has been evolving toward socialism. "So fixed in our minds is this delusion that when we face foreign problems we instinctively consider ourselves the natural allies of conservatism, and we tend to behave as if we wanted to stifle the natural hopes of mankind for a decenter way of life. Instinctively we set our faces against change. And preposterously we think of Soviet Russia . . . as if it and its allied zealots and dupes repre-

sented radicalism, represented a disposition of things toward which we ourselves might drift if we did not hold fast against change; as if Soviet Russia were something other than a despotic medievalism which was developed out of a revolutionary attempt to meet the problems of the nineteenth century—problems which we ourselves have long since surmounted."

We must, Mr. Allen continues, "rid ourselves of this notion about Russia. It is time we realize that when we battle against communism, we are battling against the past, not against the future. It is time, too, we rid ourselves of the notion that the direction of change at home is toward socialism or communism, and that therefore loyal Americans must stand pat. This notion is a stultifying force in our life. It causes well-meaning people to imagine that anyone with unorthodox ideas must be suspect of subversive intent. It tends to cramp men's imaginations into a timid conformity. It tends to constrict our generous impulses as a people. Combined with the fear of large-scale war, and especially of atomic war, it eats away at our bold confidence in ourselves and our destiny."

Once we rid ourselves of this false belief, the future belongs to us, Mr. Allen says in effect. "We would do well to think of our accomplishment thus far as but the preface to what we may accomplish in the second half of the century if we can continue to invent, improve, and change—and keep a good heart. The courageous nation, like the courageous man, is not unhappy at the thought of dangers beside the road ahead, but welcomes them as challenges to be faced and overwhelmed along an adventurous course."

*The Big Change* is a good book. If by its emphasis upon the best in American life today, it replenishes our faith, strengthens our confidence, and fills us with determination to make a better job of the American way of life, then it will have served a good purpose.

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# International Understanding: The United Nations, Nationalism, and the Schools

Ben M. Cherrington

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ON FIRST sight our assignment appears to call for discussion of three separate topics: international understanding, the United Nations, nationalism, each in relation to American schools. However, upon reflection it is clear that these are but three aspects of the school's central task of preparing students for citizenship in the modern world.

## THE UNITED NATIONS

LET us first consider the United Nations. We shall gain perspective by inquiring what it is we are trying to accomplish through the United Nations system. The answer is that in establishing the United Nations peoples of the world are doing precisely what peoples have always done when their sense of community has reached the stage where they are determined to bring it under the rule of law and order. Always machinery is created to perform four basic functions: police, legislative, judicial and administrative. That is what these western communities did in frontier days. Take this wonderful city of Dallas. I dare say they began by selecting a constable or sheriff and out of that simple beginning has grown the splendid police department of which this city is justly proud. Legislative machinery took the form of a city council which makes the laws to regulate the conduct of citizens in this well-governed community. A justice of

peace was appointed to settle disputes among citizens and out of that has evolved the splendid courts of today. The administrative machinery in the beginning was considered the least important. As the city has grown in population and complexity, it has become by far the most significant of the four. Schools, streets, traffic, sewage, health, fire protection, parks, and recreation centers; these are some of the administrative activities which make it possible for tens of thousands of citizens to carry on their daily pursuits in security and freedom.

The machinery of the United Nations system was created to perform these identical functions for the international community. To exercise the police power, the charter provided for a central world organization on which chiefs of staff of the major powers would be permanently represented and smaller nations on a rotating basis. Due to Russia's opposition this provision has never been carried out but, despite her obstructionism, the United Nations courageously is exercising police action to restrain aggression in Korea. This collective action to enforce peace still hangs in the balance, and President-Elect Eisenhower has given it priority above all the grave responsibilities confronting him. Machinery for the legislative function is seen in the assembly. Delegates from all the nations gather to formulate rules of conduct for the peoples of the world. The assembly has fallen short of the expectations held out for it at the time the charter was adopted, but despite its limitations, I know of no effective answer to Senator Vandenberg's statement, "It is far better for us to be in here shouting at each other than on the battlefield shooting at each other."

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This article, somewhat condensed in its present form, was originally given as an address at a general meeting of the National Council for the Social Studies at its annual conference in Dallas, Texas, in late November 1952.

In addition to numerous other activities, Dr. Cherrington serves as regional director of the Institute of International Education.

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THE world court at The Hague carries out the judicial function. Composed of distinguished jurists with no two from any one coun-

try, its business is to apply law and justice to the settlement of disputes between the nations which are juridical in character. The administrative function in a large measure is carried on by the economic and social council and its affiliated bodies which include the International Labor Organization, the Food and Agricultural Organization, the UNESCO, the International Civil Aviation Organization, the International Bank, the International Monetary Fund, the World Health Organization, the International Refugee Organization, the International Postal Union, and the International Communications Union. These activities, the administrative services of the United Nations, are not dramatic and seldom are given front-page headlines. Nevertheless, just as it is with our cities, they affect the lives of citizens everywhere far more profoundly than the three other aspects of the United Nations. Steadily and unobtrusively these administrative activities are laying the foundation for what may eventually become a secure and peaceful world.

#### INTERNATIONAL UNDERSTANDING

**S**UPPOSE we turn now to the first phase of our topic—international understanding. For those of us who may be discouraged by today's complex and dangerous world situation, it is a heartening exercise to review the tremendous advance made by the American people in international understanding in a single generation. If we look back to the year 1927, we can now see that all who were engaged in international education were confronted by a very difficult problem, which arose from the fact that ours was essentially a producer-minded society. The worker was preoccupied with selling his labor, the business man with selling his goods, the professional man with selling his services. Altogether inadequate attention was given to those things which we shared in common as consumers or as citizens (and I use the word interchangeably).

How did this come about? It appears to have been the result of our failure fully to understand and hence adequately to apply that principle which is unique in our western heritage. At the heart of our western society is the conception of the supreme worth of the individual, a conception running back through the ages with its roots in the teachings of the Old Testament prophets, the life and teaching of the men of Galilee; a conception to which Greek culture, Roman civilization, the Renaissance, all made their contribution.

But this concept of the value of the individual

is not the unique achievement of our western civilization. The unique and distinctive contribution the West has to offer the world is the discovery that miracles happen when the minds and wills of all men are set free. The Greeks and Romans had it in part, but only in part; only the few were free—the many, slaves. It is a concomitant of the belief in the sacredness of the individual, for it reveals that the individual realizes his potentialities only as his mind and his will are made free. As western minds were set free, they became preoccupied with age-old mysteries of the natural order. Out of that preoccupation with the secrets of nature emerged science, and out of science has come modern technology. Behold about us its fruits; more wealth has been created, economists tell us, in the last 150 years than in the preceding thousand years. Man, who previously cowered in helpless fear of the mysteries of nature, increasingly is becoming master of his environment. Life has been prolonged many years. Comforts, conveniences, enjoyment, undreamed of hitherto, are the lot of the common man in the West.

**A**S WE look back a quarter of a century, we see that with our great emphasis upon science and its constantly increasing array of specializations—in other words, with our absorption in the producing function of society—we had neglected our responsibilities and opportunities as free men in the field of consumer interests. While society progressively became more complex and the life of individuals more interdependent, our attention to problems of citizenship steadily lagged behind.

Our universities had taken on the complexion of the age; they had departed from the emphasis of earlier decades when the values of life were the primary concern of higher education; when instruction in the broader meanings of citizenship was conceived to be perhaps the first charge on the university. Like the society around them, they, too, had become centers of specialization.

All this we see quite clearly today, but it was not so in 1927. For the majority of our people in that year, the outlook for freedom appeared bright indeed. The spell of Woodrow Wilson's idealism had been broken and we had turned to embrace the admonition of George Washington against entangling alliances. We repudiated the League of Nations; we turned our backs on the World Court; we were in the process of formulating neutrality legislation which in the future would keep us out of other peoples' wars. In

addition, we were on the crest of an unprecedented wave of prosperity. In short, we had returned to normalcy.

The mood of 1927, I think, is epitomized in a quotation from a great statesman of that day, the Chairman of the Foreign Relations Committee of the United States, William Borah. He said: "Internationalism, if it means anything more than the friendly cooperation between separate, distinct, and wholly independent nations, rests upon a false foundation. And when undertaken, it will fail as in the name of progress and humanity it should fail. . . . When earthquake and famine or whatever brings human suffering, visit any part of the human race, we have not been isolationists, and never will be. But in all matters political, in all commitments of any nature or kind, which encroach in the slightest upon the free and unembarrassed action of our people, or which circumscribe their discretion and judgment, we have been free, we have been independent, we have been isolationists. And this, I trust, we shall ever be." Where is the high school boy or girl today who will not at once recognize the unreality of that statement? The illusion that nations could be completely independent of each other to us now seems incredible.

All of us know the terrifying experiences that lay immediately ahead for that generation. Although on the one hand, stress upon the productive functions with a maze of specializations had brought unrivaled prosperity and well-being to great numbers of people, on the other hand, it had woven the destinies of men in a web of interdependency that was world-wide. And because free men had neglected the problems facing consumers, millions had become dispossessed and seized with an overwhelming sense of insecurity. False prophets were appearing in the world saying to the common people, "The problems of modern society are altogether beyond your competence to solve; surrender your freedom, your minds, your wills to the State, and the State will guarantee your security, your well-being and give you peace." Multitudes of anxious, frustrated people were accepting these spurious promises at face value. Already Mussolini had marched on Rome and was shortly to refer to the Goddess of Liberty as a corpse. Hitler was preparing for his bloody march across the pages of history.

**T**HESE were the real ties which masses of Americans, poorly equipped as they were for the role of citizenship, only one generation ago,

but faintly perceived, if indeed, they sensed them at all. The next twenty-five years were to challenge freedom as it had never been challenged before. First, a terrible depression, then the most costly war in mankind's history. The free people of the world met the test. Eventually they emerged from the valley of the shadow of death to stand on the mountain top of victory. Freedom is still alive in much of the world. A frightful price to be paid, yes, but in partial compensation there have come very great gains. Out of the sacrifice and suffering of the past twenty-five years the West has learned lessons and made advances which normally perhaps would have required a century or more.

I think you will agree with me that great numbers of our fellow Americans are far more aware of their responsibility to think and act as citizens and are willing to do so. There is now growing recognition that we must balance our producer activities by giving far greater attention to our common problems as consumers and citizens. This is an enormous gain.

Again, we have made great advances in international understanding. It is evident that great numbers of our citizens, we hope the vast majority not only in the United States but in all free lands, now recognize that we are members of a world community. In the United States with strong public support we have been ready to join with others in building upon the ruins of the League of Nations, which we rejected, the new structure of the United Nations. The public is urging our government to make every effort to strengthen the structure of the international organization. Both parties in the recent presidential campaign were committed to support of the United Nations.

Our universities have not fallen behind. They have trained most of the architects of the new international structures and the leaders and specialists who formulate and administer policies of international relations. Whereas, twenty-five years ago specialization was the dominant feature of higher education, where today will we find the college or university that is not trying to redress the imbalance between specialization and education for the responsibilities of citizenship? General education courses and innumerable other types of experiments are being carried on all directed toward this end. All this, I trust, reflects our determination to re-establish at the center of education at all levels consideration of the values of life and the ultimate goals of society.

## NATIONALISM

**N**OW a word about nationalism. We are living in one of the revolutionary periods of history. Multitudes of people residing in so-called under-developed areas and representing perhaps half of the human race are demanding a larger share of the good things of life. The strength of their determination is reflected in a surge of nationalism. Rightly directed this emerging nationalism can become a powerful force for international cooperation and peace. Russia is making desperate efforts to woo these peoples to the acceptance of communism. However, her efforts are handicapped by the fact that Russia herself today exemplifies nationalism in its most extreme and dangerous form. She demands from all her satellites unquestioning obedience to the dictates of the Kremlin. This eventually may be her undoing for the peoples of whom we have been speaking resent domination from any source; they do not intend to be puppets either of the East or the West.

Our policy is, and should continue to be, to recognize, respect, and assist their desire for self-determination. Fortunately, in offering our assistance we come to them with relatively clean hands. Our record on the whole is good. We have never sought empire. Following the Spanish-American war, we secured Cuba and today Cuba is a free nation. Also, we secured the Philippines and the first thing we did was to send a thousand American school teachers with American textbooks to the Philippines. We taught them the principles of democracy and provided laboratories for training in self-government. Within fifty years the Stars and Stripes were hauled down and the flag of Philippine Independence went to the top of the mast. I repeat, it is possible that nationalism may prove a determining factor in the preservation of world peace. Let us therefore, as a people and as a government, by word and by deed, continue to reaffirm the pledge we made in joining the United Nations as set forth in the preamble, "... reaffirm faith in fundamental human rights and in the equal rights of nations large and small."

**Y**OU will agree, I am sure, that encouraging as are these advances of recent years we must recognize them as a mere beginning. American education in all its aspects must be given global orientation. Every school in every city, village, and county district, as well as universities and colleges, must be adjusted to world reality. If we are committed without reservation to the task

of keeping America free and progressively extending freedom in the world, then we must educate every boy and girl to understand these things. Not only must they earnestly desire a free world; they must be equipped to bring it to pass. This probably calls for a re-examination of the entire curriculum from the kindergarten through the high school, the college, and the university. It is an undertaking involving the entire educational process and calling for the enlistment of everyone engaged in education, including not only the schools but also such adult education forces as the press, radio, television, cinema, and pulpit. I call your attention to the study made by your organization in cooperation with the International Relations Committee of the National Education Association entitled, *Education for International Understanding in American Schools*, and suggest that you re-examine the ten marks of the world-minded citizen set forth in that pamphlet. It can be secured through the NEA headquarters.

**O**NE of the most effective ways of lowering the barriers between nations and developing good-will toward other peoples will be to increase the exchange of persons from one country to another. An especially appropriate assignment for the schools will be to increase the number of exchange teachers and to provide more significant learning experiences for those who come here for further education.

The federal government has greatly expanded its activities in the exchange of persons, and in doing so has followed a policy of utilizing as far as possible and cooperating with private agencies and the schools and colleges of the country. It has asked the Institute of International Education which I represent today, to take major responsibility for administering the Fulbright Act and to assist in the extension of hospitality to distinguished leaders who are invited to visit America from all parts of the world.

Turning from the specific task of our schools to the responsibility of all our citizens, do you not agree that the following point is perhaps the most important of all? America should strive to give a demonstration of the free way of life so impelling that all the world will be irresistibly attracted by our example. It is common knowledge that every denial of equality, every limitation of the freedom of members of American society, will be distorted and broadcast among the masses of the world by the alert watchers in

(Concluded on page 254)



# An Indian Activity

Hilda Mac Tolle

ONE'S philosophy of education just naturally motivates one's method of teaching. Any educational program should embody attainable, worthy objectives, so formulated that they create, stimulate, and sustain, through interest and happy cooperation of the students. These objectives should be general enough in nature that they will not be lost throughout the years of educational growth. Rather, they should have firm enough foundation and be capable of evolutionary enlargement so they will grow with the mental and physical growth of the child.

The teacher should be skillful in watching for and recognizing the talents in every child in order that she may help and encourage his development of them. She should be able to use pupil initiative. She will further child growth by encouraging his participation in planning learning experiences.

If the children are going to have standards of courtesy, fairness, and helpfulness, she must possess them first that she may be a living example to them.

It is true that we need to fit the child for the "World of Tomorrow," but he should enjoy living in his world of today. He needs successful achievement, recognition, and security to be happy. Every child should have at all times a challenging or interesting task; he should know how he is going to perform it; and he should succeed in its accomplishment. Education changes the untrained child into a responsible adult. He needs to learn to participate in groups, and to develop an understanding of the society of which he is a part.<sup>1</sup>

A child must be taught good use of his leisure time. He needs to be taught to think creatively, exercise intelligence in everyday matters, and to locate and evaluate facts.

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This project, which ended up as a feature exhibit in the children's room of the Cornell Public Library, was carried on under the direction of Mrs. Tolle, a third-grade teacher in Fall Creek School in Ithaca, New York.

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## WE BEGIN OUR VILLAGE

WITH this philosophy as guidance, our third grade began our Indian activity—the construction of an Indian village. This was not begun for several weeks after school started as the teacher needed time to become acquainted with each child.

The foundation for the teacher's plans was the *Curriculum Guide*.<sup>2</sup> Materials used were the text book, *Workers at Home and Away*,<sup>3</sup> library books from our building, the city library, and from the library on Cornell campus. The children also brought in their own helpful books.

The activity was inspired by a good assembly program given in October by Mrs. Clare Pineo's fifth grade—a shadow play based on "Hiawatha." The discussion of it in the third grade led to the mention of the books on Indians that the students possessed. They wished to find out what tribes of Indians lived where Ithaca is now located. This led to the vote that we turn to the Indian section in our textbooks. They offered to bring their own books for the others to read and one girl told of a very good library book that she had just read and returned. She offered to try to get it again for all the children. The teacher also got children's books from the libraries.

The first assignment was for all to read the text on Indians. Next, we talked about the different things we should like to know about these particular Indians who lived here before the white men came to establish Ithaca. With guidance, they chose to study food, clothing, shelter, transportation, and recreation in the form of a little play to bring out every day Indian life activities. Thus, five committees were arranged. Here the teacher was somewhat aggressive, because the children would have chosen the popular leaders of the room for the chairmen. Instead,

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<sup>1</sup> John A. Hockett and E. W. Jacobson. *Modern Practices in the Elementary School*. Boston, Mass.: Ginn and Company, 1938.

<sup>2</sup> *Curriculum Guide in the Social Studies for Grades Three and Four*. Prepared by committees of teachers under the direction of Loretta E. Klee. Ithaca, New York: Board of Education, 1949. \$1.

<sup>3</sup> Alta McIntire. *Workers at Home and Away*. Chicago, Illinois: Follett Publishing Company, 1946.

children who had shown a desire for recognition but had not been able to achieve it, were selected. Also, they had to be guided to keep them from putting all of group one, in reading, on one committee. Each committee needed at least one good reader and a leader as members. The fourth reading group was put on the food committee as that subject required a more commonly known vocabulary and a more general interest.

The committees met in different parts of the room and read to each other. In our planning, we had decided that each would write down everything he read that pertained to his committee subject. He also would write down everything that his reading reminded him that he would want to know and would need to read further to find out. Before any reading was done by committees, the group as a whole had named all the things they could think of that each committee would want to find out. Each committee subject received an individual, thorough discussion. That gave them their starting points for their research. When they started bringing their Indian possessions from home, the interest grew by leaps and bounds. The articles that we could not use in the model village were placed on top of the bookcase for the children to enjoy.

After their lists were made from their reading, a general discussion was held again to see if all had been learned that would be needed in order to proceed with the project.

#### THE VILLAGE PROGRESSES

THE overall planning of the village was done in a general meeting with each committee giving the plans made by its group for its part of the construction. The table on which the village was to be put was measured and found to be  $71\frac{1}{4}$  inches by  $33\frac{1}{2}$  inches. The things that made up an Iroquois village of the Cayuga tribe were listed and the amount of space for each was figured so that all things would be in proper proportion. They planned the size of Lake Cayuga, the cornfield, the palisade, and the number of compartments in the longhouses, as well as the size of them. In another discussion period the pupils listed the kinds of materials that would be needed, such as elm sticks because they would bend without breaking, and birch bark that could be peeled thin enough to be pliable. All were asked to bring these materials. Except for the mirror used for the lake, actual materials were used—sand, bark, elm posts, sticks for the palisade, leather for doors and to divide the compartments, hollowed-out wooden troughs,

and maple as well as other tree limbs for the forest. We used Spanish moss for the grass. One little boy with a clay Indian mould made the Indian men. The garden committee members planned to mould Indian women to put into the garden holding their tools of wood and stone.

In the cornfield they planted Indian corn and squash and watered it most carefully. It grew, much to the joy of the children.

One longhouse was completely closed. The other was open on one side to show the interior.

In many instances the children requested their lesson drills. For example, during a research period, one little girl said she would like to learn to spell some of the words, such as *Indian*. They all agreed that they would like to make their spelling lists from their reading. This they did. We are still using the lists.

After the table on which the replica was to be made, was measured, one boy said that he had thought that we could use the scale of one inch to a foot; but he believed now that that would be too big. He decided that it should be one-half inch scale. He proved to be right. This involved fractions to the point that the children wanted to learn enough about them to do their own figuring.

Another boy for whom reading is quite a chore said his committee needed another book because they must find out where the Indians got their drinking water. They learned that if there was no other water, the Indians secured the liquid from a tree branch. They had learned the kind of drums that the water was carried in, but had not found where the water came from. They continued reading until they found their answers.

An excellent Indian map was brought by one boy and placed on the bulletin board. The children often studied it. Maps of Ithaca were placed on the board for comparison. These will be used more thoroughly as we progress with the study of the city of Ithaca.

They were eager to learn to use their rulers and were very strict about everything being measured exactly before work was begun. They wanted to learn to write, instead of print, a letter to their parents and to other interested people, to invite them to come to see their village. They were so eager that it took very few drill sessions. They cut an apple and dried it in the sun in the window before they hung it in their village to show how the Indians preserved their fruit and meat by drying them.

One little boy for whom reading is very difficult was eager to tell the class that the Indians

used fish for fertilizer. He knew also that we could not do that in class for obvious reasons.

During the study for opening exercise, they enjoyed the book by Dr. E. A. Bates\* of Cornell University, *Tell Me an Indian Story*, which aroused their interest in the stars.

From the *Weekly Reader* test, the reading range of this group was from zero to fifty-six, with a possible sixty points. The test measured from first-grade level to high fourth-grade level in reading. The average score was 28.38 percent. There are four reading groups daily with a very wide reading ability. The majority are second-grade and average third-grade readers. Three or four have fourth-grade comprehension.

#### THE VALUE OF THE PROJECT

THERE were too many values received to list all of them in this short paper. The children's interest was very high. They saw a need for learning arithmetic and subject matter. They learned to work in groups without the show-offs making any headway. Since the class has student government, when the few started "acting funny," the rest of the good citizenship club members let them know that they would not have it, as they had no time to waste.

That the interest increased instead of faded as the village progressed was shown by the request brought from the city librarian by a third-grade girl, and later by Miss Marian Davenport, fourth-grade teacher. The library wished to borrow our village to put in its show case for display after we were finished with it. After much discussion, the class voted to grant the request. It was pointed out during the discussion that the longhouses might fall apart during the moving, but the children were eager to volunteer to go to the library and set the village up again.

They enjoyed their spelling lessons and increased their reading vocabularies rapidly. The biggest gain seemed to be in learning to pick out certain things in their reading in order to find the answer to some problem that arose in their committee.

It awakened them to their fortunate way of living by comparisons of their modern conveniences and working materials with the crude things with which the Indians had to work.

They became interested in knowing nature better, as they understood from handling different kinds of woods why the Indians used them.

They learned respect for those who had not

led in reading and arithmetic, as they did much better jobs, for the most part, in the construction. With one exception, the girls with the high "I.Q.s" fell down completely when it came to getting their hands dirty. All the boys and the other girls loved it.

Their interest in gardening was aroused and they found pleasure in it.

Their interest in trees will be continued as the leaves appear, as we plan to make notebooks of the different kinds of trees in our community.

The note-taking as they read was good practice both in writing and spelling.

They learned to appreciate their home territory instead of taking it all for granted.

At the end of the project, the children listed a number of things that they had learned during this activity. The lists below summarize the topics they mentioned.

They learned something about, and gained practice in, each of the following skills:

- How to use the library
- How to locate materials and information
- How to use simple maps
- How to write rather than to letter
- How to work with their hands
- How to spell new words
- How to use a ruler
- How to read better
- How to do simple addition
- How to do simple fractions
- How to work together and on committees
- How to plan their work
- How to organize their work in order to get it done on time

They also gained information about each of the following topics:

- History of the Iroquois and other Indians
- History of Ithaca
- Indian customs and ceremonies, games and dances
- Indian food, clothing, and shelter, especially the long-houses
- Indian farming and fishing
- Indian tools
- Indian methods of travel
- The work of the Indian women
- Indian medicine men
- How Indian boys became braves
- How Indians made fires without matches
- How Indians used the trees and other natural resources

We feel that we have obtained our objectives, for the children have learned to lead, or to follow when it is not their time to lead, to be courteous, cooperative, fair, and helpful. They have learned to be careful and neat, since a job worth doing at all is worth doing well. Interest was stimulated to a point that the boys did not wish to quit at three-thirty, but often remained long after school hours were over. Everything in the village was created by the children, and the

\*E. A. Bates. *Tell Me an Indian Story*. New York: Cortland Democrat Press, 1932. (Author's edition.)

interest has been so thoroughly sustained that they still read more about the Indians, to the detriment, in fact, of our progressing to the other subjects in our social science text.

The pleasure they have received and the knowledge they have gained that the activity would not have been possible without their splendid cooperation surely will live with them and influence their years of educational growth. Children who, before the project, were shy and withdrawn, have become outspoken and have demonstrated that they, too, possess initiative.

The happiness shown among the children, obtained from achievement, recognition, a more secure place in their class, and a better understanding of group participation, demonstrates that learning can be fun. With interest so highly aroused and the library as an added friend, they will make better use of their leisure time.

By setting up desirable experiences, this activity has promoted security, happiness, satisfying achievement and success in each child, which will stimulate the constant growth of each and every one to the very best of his ability.

### INTERNATIONAL UNDERSTANDING

*(Continued from page 250)*

the Kremlin. But fear of consequences abroad resulting from our failures at home certainly must not be our driving incentive in extending freedom. We shall never succeed if our attitudes are so negative as that. Nothing less than a robust faith in our ideals and a compelling determination that these ideals shall be fully experienced by every American will suffice.

The American community must be kept fluid, thus insuring to each individual the maximum possibility for self-realization. And is there any more important place to apply the ideal of equality of opportunity than in our schools? Surely a minimum goal should be that every boy and every girl in this broad land shall have an education commensurate with his or her talents: a goal embracing higher education as completely as education at the elementary and secondary level. And beyond the period of formal education, shall we be content with any goal less than a fair opportunity for each graduate to apply his abilities as a creative citizen in a democratic society?

**D**EMOCRACY is a sophisticated form of social organization perhaps the most difficult that man has yet devised, for it places the responsibility for critical thinking and independent judgment upon each individual. If there was any tendency in the recent election for American citizens to shirk this responsibility by saying, "Adlai will pull us through" or "Ike will solve our problems," that was indeed a dangerous sign. All of us in our day have witnessed the tragic spectacle of the most highly educated peoples in the world, in a formal sense, abdicate their responsibilities to think for them-

selves as free citizens in favor of an all-wise Führer who led them to destruction.

Perhaps Lincoln's statement that a nation cannot exist half slave and half free is equally valid for the world community. Important as it is that we continually improve education for citizenship and extend and fortify freedom at home, this is not enough.

You have already discussed in this conference the world-wide program of economic and technical assistance. As we have indicated, the communists are challenging and will continue to challenge all we do. It is a titanic struggle. On the technical and material level the West has a great advantage over communism but it is not on this level that the issue finally will be resolved. We can share with less fortunate people the technical know-how; we can bring material advantages which they seek, but in so doing we have no assurance whatsoever that they will embrace the free way of life. These people have never known freedom, and while they are reaching out eagerly for a better existence they do not understand that freedom is the source of the technology and high standard of living enjoyed by the West. We must never forget that what the underdeveloped peoples of the world seek is more than food and raiment, more than higher standards of living; they seek that which they have so long been denied, namely dignity, status, significance. You and I know that communism cannot answer this deep hunger in the heart of the masses of the world. It is only through freedom that they will find the full realization of that which they seek above all else. To help them discover this great truth, I take it, is the supreme task of education today and tomorrow.



# Recent Supreme Court Decisions: The Oklahoma Loyalty Oath

Isidore Starr

OUR highest tribunal celebrated the 161st anniversary of the day on which the Bill of Rights was declared in force by striking down, on December 15, 1952, the Oklahoma Loyalty Oath Law. This was not only a significant victory for human rights. It was, in addition, an event of great interest to teachers, for the concurring opinion of Justice Frankfurter (in which Justice Douglas joined) underscored the importance of academic freedom in our society.

In previous articles in *Social Education* (November 1951, and November 1952), we summarized three cases in which the Court upheld the constitutionality of state legislation aimed at safeguarding the public service from disloyalty. What distinguishes the case in point from its predecessors is a basic legal concept, *scienter*. Defined by the dictionary as "such knowledge as charges a man with the consequences of his act," it refers in loyalty legislation to *knowledge* of the subversive nature of an organization to which a person is charged with having belonged. The present Court is agreed that in oath laws *scienter* must be expressed or implied in the clauses of the affidavit or oath. Obviously, an innocent joining is not culpable; a knowing joining is.

NOW, let us see how this principle works out in the four cases. In upholding the validity of the Feinberg Law of the State of New York (*Adler v. Board of Education—1952*), the majority of the Court recognized that membership orga-

nizations listed by the Board of Regents as subversive can be *prima facie* evidence of disqualification from teaching, provided that *knowledge of organizational purpose* is required before the regulation is applied.

The oath which was approved in *Gerende v. Board of Supervisors* (1951) was required of candidates for public office in Maryland. However, this was done only after the Maryland Attorney General had given assurance during his oral argument that he would advise the inclusion in the required affidavit of a clause that the affiant was not knowingly a member of any organization engaged in the overthrow of the government by force or violence.

The third case, *Garner v. Board of Public Works* (1951), resulted in a five to four decision sustaining the constitutionality of a Los Angeles ordinance requiring all city employees to swear that they did not advocate the overthrow of the government by unlawful means or belong to organizations with such objectives. However, the majority of the Justices emphasized that *scienter* was implicit in every clause of the oath. And it was further understood that those who had refused to comply with the law would be given the opportunity to take the oath as thus interpreted.

THIS brings us to *Wieman et al. v. Updegraff et al.*, 344 U. S. 183 (1952), where the Supreme Court was asked to rule on the constitutionality of the Oklahoma law prescribing a lengthy and detailed loyalty oath for all state officers and employees. The key clauses which had to be sworn to were:

... That I am not affiliated directly or indirectly ... with any foreign political agency, party, organization or Government, or with any agency, party, organization, association, or group whatever which has been officially determined by the United States Attorney General or other authorized agency of the United States to be a communist front or subversive organization; ... that I will take up arms in defense of the United States in time of War, or National Emergency, if necessary; that within the five (5) years immediately preceding the taking of the oath (or affirmation) I have not been a member of ...

In spite of the fact that the author spent the past year at Columbia University on a John Hay Fellowship in The Humanities, he was generous enough to take the time to continue his annual review of significant Supreme Court decisions. This is the first in a series of three articles.

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any agency, party, organization, association, or group whatever which has been officially determined by the United States Attorney General or other authorized public agency of the United States to be a communist front or subversive organization. . . .

Seven members of the faculty of the Oklahoma Agricultural and Mechanical College failed to comply with the law and a tax-payer's suit was started to enjoin the payment of their salaries. The teachers argued that the requirement was a bill of attainder and an *ex post facto* law, an impairment of the obligations of their contract with the State, and a violation of the Due Process Clause of the Fourteenth Amendment. The tax-payers responded that the state had the power to impose reasonable terms of employment on its workers.

WE COME now to a very interesting sidelight in the history of this case in the lower courts. The Oklahoma Supreme Court interpreted the law to mean that the oath referred *only* to membership in organizations on the United States Attorney General's list issued *prior* to the effective date of the Act. When the teachers then asked for permission to take the oath on the basis of this interpretation, the court refused. This event carried great weight with our highest court, for it is related to the problem of *scienter*.

Justice Clark, writing for a unanimous Court (Justice Jackson did not take part), held that the Oklahoma law was an unconstitutional violation of the Due Process Clause of the Fourteenth Amendment. In attempting to bar disloyal individuals from its employ, a state cannot exclude persons solely on the basis of organizational membership, *regardless of their knowledge* concerning the organizations to which they belonged. Where a state designates membership alone as a conclusive presumption of disloyalty and as grounds for disqualification from public employment, its action is "patently arbitrary and discriminatory." The reasons for this rule is then set forth in the following words:

But membership may be innocent. A state servant may have joined a proscribed organization unaware of its activities and purposes. In recent years, many completely loyal persons have severed organizational ties after learning for the first time of the character of groups to which they had belonged. "They had joined, but did not know what it was, they were good, fine young men and women, loyal Americans (but) they had been trapped into it—because one of the great weaknesses of all Americans, whether adult or youth, is to join something." (Testimony of J. Edgar Hoover, Hearings before House Committee on Un-American Activities.) At the time of affiliation, a group itself may be innocent, only later coming under the in-

fluence of those who would turn it toward illegitimate ends. Conversely, an organization formerly subversive and therefore designated as such may have subsequently freed itself from the influences which originally led to its listing.

There can be no dispute about the consequences visited upon a person excluded from public employment on disloyalty grounds. In the view of the community, the stain is a deep one; indeed, it has become a badge of infamy. . . . Yet under the Oklahoma Act, the fact of association alone determines disloyalty and disqualification; it matters not whether association existed innocently or knowingly. To thus inhibit individual freedom or movement is to stifle the flow of democratic expression and controversy at one of its chief sources.

The concurring opinion of Justice Black, in which Justice Douglas joined, develops his now familiar position on human rights. He urges a distinction between thought and speech on the one hand, and treasonable acts on the other. For him the Oklahoma Act is a "test oath" and a bill of attainder. As another "manifestation of a national network of laws aimed at coercing and controlling the minds of men," he fears that the present period is more dangerous to free speech and press than that which produced the Alien and Sedition Laws. He reasons as follows:

History indicates that individual liberty is intermittently subjected to extraordinary perils. Even countries dedicated to government by the people are not free from such cyclical dangers. The first years of our Republic marked such a period. Enforcement of the Alien and Sedition Laws by zealous patriots who feared ideas made it highly dangerous for people to think, speak, or write critically about government, its agents, or its policies, either foreign or domestic. Our constitutional liberties survived this regrettable period because there were influential men and powerful organized groups bold enough to champion the undiluted right of individuals to publish and argue for their beliefs however unorthodox or loathsome. Today however, few individuals and organizations of power and influence argue that unpopular advocacy has this same wholly unqualified immunity from governmental interference. . . . Tyrannical totalitarian governments cannot safely allow their people to speak with complete freedom. I believe with the Framers that our free Government can.

The concurring opinion of Justice Frankfurter, in which Justice Douglas also joined, is a stirring defense of the unique role of the teacher in a democracy. Statutes like the Oklahoma Law, he observes, cause "unwarranted inhibitions upon the free spirit of teachers"; they "chill that free play of the spirit" which is essential to that "continuing Socratic conversation" that we call education; and they induce "caution and timidity" in the association of potential teachers. He goes on to say:

To regard teachers—in our entire educational system, from the primary grades to the university—as the priests of our democracy is therefore not to indulge in hyperbole.

(Concluded on page 260)

# Aims for American History in an Era of Crisis

Richard E. Gross

WHAT are the typical goals sought by high school American history teachers today? How do these compare with purposes stated in the past? What guiding principles exist that might help us in forming and using objectives effectively? What are some personal aims for the teachers of our nation's history in these times of world disorder when the responsibilities of the social studies teacher are so grave? This article will attempt to suggest some answers to the above questions, will report some recent findings, and will hope to encourage more instructors to think about this basic but too commonly neglected aspect of teaching organization and procedure.

The author has spent some interesting hours comparing recent statements of aims for American history courses with those presented at different times during the past century.<sup>1</sup> One striking finding was the uniformity of objectives, whether national, state, or local; whether given for texts, courses, or pupils; or whether for general history, United States history, or social studies. Once differences in wording are accounted for in such lists, the main variations are not new or disappearing aims, but rather the shifting position of aims, from one generation to another, when ranked in order of importance. In going over older statements, some may be surprised to find that history has always had functional aims and that a few more "modern" goals, such as "grasp of the implication of international relations" or "understanding of current affairs," have appeared near the top in the great majority of past collections of aims. Nevertheless, anyone working with such lists would soon come to see the need for much greater specificity in developing aims.

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What objectives do United States history teachers hold of prime import today? At this point it may be revealing to note those aims suggested by the American history teachers in 100 California secondary schools.<sup>2</sup> The fifteen mentioned most frequently appear below, ranked in order of number of times stated:

Major Aims in Teaching American History in California High Schools, 1950.

(1) An appreciation of and devotion of the American way of life; (2) Knowledge of essential facts of U. S. history; (3) An understanding of current problems via the past; (4) Understanding and using democratic principles and practices; (5) Displaying the initiative and responsibility of good citizens; (6) A realization of the role of the U. S. in world affairs; (7) The use of critical thinking; (8) Competence in social studies skills; (9) The development of worthy social attitudes and personal qualities; (10) Knowledge and interest in governmental functions; (11) Grasp of the interrelationships of the various social studies; (12) Understanding historical trends; (13) Historical method and research; (14) Realization of cause and effect relationships; (15) Recognition of the contributions of great American leaders.

A few comments on the above list seem in order. Progress is shown in that among the hundreds of teacher statements, not a single one mentioned "disciplining the mind" as an aim. Nevertheless, numerous teachers evidenced the assumption that knowledge of subject matter—of the facts of history—is the foundation upon which all other aims rest. This was revealed by the large number placing this objective first and by their statements or intimations to that effect. There can be little argument that full understanding cannot be gained nor safe generaliza-

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<sup>1</sup> See, for example, W. F. Russell, "The Early Teaching of History in Secondary Schools," *History Teacher's Magazine*, V, 1914, pp. 203-208; a number of other earlier lists of aims appear in Chapter II, *The Contribution of Research to the Teaching of the Social Studies*, C. C. Barnes, editor. Eighth Yearbook of the National Council for the Social Studies, 1937.

<sup>2</sup> Richard E. Gross, "Trends in the Teaching of United States History in the Senior High Schools of California," Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Stanford University, 1951, p. 20.

tions drawn without a command of the details involved in a situation. The danger here is the belief in automatic transfer—that because we teach the facts, the other goals by some mysterious process are also gained.

The Wesley Committee on American History some eight years ago recommended as the main theme for the entire senior high school course "A Democratic Nation in a World Setting."<sup>3</sup> Although a goodly number of teachers did not mention an understanding of the international aspect of American history as a major aim for their courses, they did indicate in other parts of the study and were observed in their teaching to reveal their zealous interest in and concern over this crucial need by attention to the United Nations and foreign affairs in their classroom activities.

In view of the fact that so many pupils are expected to gain an understanding of the Constitution and of governmental functions from their history courses, it may be that more instructors should have listed this aim as of prime importance; it ranked tenth in frequency of mention by these teachers of history in 100 California high schools. Since courses are often named "United States History and Government," specific units and lessons related to civic understandings should be planned by the teacher. A real grasp of civic competencies will not be gained without specific activities on the part of the pupil; nor will incidental treatment of this content be satisfactory.

In these troubled times it is to be expected that patriotism and pride and devotion to our nation and way of life be at the top of the list of the main ends of instruction. If ever a balanced sense of loyalty is needed, it is today—not in the sense of nationalistic chauvinism, pointedly avoided by a number of the teachers, but as an abiding faith in the values of democracy with a positive resolve to add to the realities of those values. Groups in the United States who fear that Americanism is a lost virtue of high school United States history instruction can quiet their apprehensions. Statement after statement, as well as observation and discussion with these instructors, shows that teachers are alive to the dangers which beset the country, and as always

they are doing their utmost to develop the thinking, responsible individual who is the backbone of our liberal tradition.

**I**F TEACHERS are to avoid some of the difficulties involved in making and using educational aims, are there any guide lines which they may follow? In the light of the findings reported earlier in this article, the following rules would seem wise to apply when formulating and using objectives:

The objectives should be in harmony with the over all aims of the school and the values of society. Aims for courses, units, and lessons need to fall into a meaningful pattern with a clear indication of the relationship of each to the democratic principles of school and community life.

The objectives should be realistic and therefore limited in number. Only those aims should be included which are definitely possible to achieve, and towards which teacher and class expect to have time to give adequate attention. Perhaps long lists of aims have contributed to the unfortunate but persistent feeling on the part of many teachers that they have to "cover the whole book" or each and every aspect of the entire course of study.

The objectives should be stated concisely. Aims for units and lessons need to be as explicit as possible. Only when an objective is comprehensible to the student, when it is couched in his own words, and when its meaning and application are clearly evident can we hope for pupil understanding and acceptance. At the same time, pupil progress toward aims stated in such a manner can be evaluated more assuredly.

The objectives are best stated behaviorally. Aims worded operationally, in terms of mental and/or physical action, seem more realistic to the pupil. When aims are expressed in such a functional manner, it is also easier to follow the steps in pupil progress toward their attainment.

The objectives should be arrived at jointly, whenever possible, by those whom they will concern. Teacher-pupil consideration of course and unit aims brings motivation as well as greater pupil acceptance. When students do not have a part in the original statement of aims, the teacher should act to help the students see and feel these aims as their own. In addition to aims for the entire group, it is also often appropriate for the teacher, and each pupil to arrive at specialized individual aims.

The objectives should usually be balanced in

<sup>3</sup> Edgar B. Wesley (dir.), *American History in Schools and Colleges*. Report of the Committee on American History in Schools and Colleges of the American Historical Association, the Mississippi Valley Historical Association, and the National Council for the Social Studies, New York: Macmillan Company, 1944, p. 79.



terms of those concerned with a grasp of knowledge, a grasp of skills, and a grasp of attitudes. Seldom is there a complete lesson which is devoid of implications in each of these three areas. A teacher in the pre-planning concerning aims should list tentatively several objectives related to essential understandings, some in the area of individual and social competencies and those related to vital values and beliefs. In this manner the teacher prepares to lead his class to consideration of the full educational contributions of a given learning experience.

The objectives need to be referred to regularly. Course aims should be frequently repeated and rephrased when planning and teaching particular units and lessons. The presence of statements of these agreed-upon aims on pupil guide sheets is often a concrete help, while specific questions or assignments which will cause the pupil to evaluate his own position in relation to the aims are very valuable aspects of unit activities. Although recent statements of objectives tend toward emphasizing behaviors and attitudes and away from facts in themselves, too many courses of study continue to seem primarily concerned with covering a body of information. Certainly a better articulation between content and objectives is needed.

The objectives need to be evaluated as well as pupil achievement of them. As in other steps of the teaching process, aims should never be taken for granted in assessing pupil growth. Not only should objectives be considered carefully when the teacher prepares tests or in some other manner attempts to evaluate pupil progress, but in the course of the educational experience the aims themselves often need to be altered.

**F**INALLY, in our day, what personal objectives can the teacher of American history hold up before himself? In these perilous times from which the nation hopes to emerge with an even improved democracy, there is probably a greater threat to their way of life than the American people have faced before. This threat comes not only from outside the nation but also from the growing regimentation within the country, which unfortunately must be taken to organize successfully to meet the demands of world leadership in an era of semi-war. Within this structure it seems the United States history teacher has a growing responsibility to select, interpret, and emphasize those aspects of the culture which contain the elements best fitted to strengthen and maintain the basic traditions of western civiliza-

tion. Indeed, the teacher must be a partisan for democracy in practice as well as in theory.

He must continue to be open-minded and objective; but since American society is faced with a most positive crusade that has stolen and misshaped some of our articles of faith, the teacher can no longer be just a negative debunker, nor can he attempt to maintain the completely detached attitude of a scholar. A period in world history looms wherein scholars in the United States are coming to realize that they need to act as a positive force in strengthening American democracy. It seems very questionable that they can succeed in differentiating between their functions as scholars and their functions as citizens.

If this be true, the teacher, who is much more than a scholar in his crucial social role in the classroom, should teach senior high school United States history positively and purposefully with a clear understanding of and dedication to the philosophy of American democracy.

#### A POSSIBLE CREED

In meeting this challenge, his credo may be somewhat as follows:

I should teach American history for other ends than the knowledge of facts alone. Important as these are, they serve primarily as a basis for understanding the civilization, for providing experiences in the development of skills such as the use of the historical method, and as aids in the formulation of valuable attitudes.

I should teach American history in terms of the age old tenets and values of democracy, in terms of faith in the common man, respect for the individual, belief in the moral law, and faith in cooperation towards progress, rather than in terms of the glorification of self, force, and power which mark opposing ideologies.

I should teach American history in terms of the continuing democratic struggle. The battle is never won; the goal is never reached. There are and always will be great challenges and limitations to be overcome in the struggle for individual and group progress.

I should teach American history through a democratic method. Only through experiences in democratic means and practices will the pupil come to understand, believe in, and use this way of life. These should be centered in grass roots activities in the community—the essential source of the American tradition.

I should teach American history in terms of the structure and demands of society. My aim

is to transmit, help maintain, and train for leadership and fellowship in a culture towards which I am pledged to loyalty and the accompanying goal of improvement.

I should teach American history in terms of the needs, abilities, and interests of my pupils. In a democratic society, the well adjusted individual, functioning to the fullest extent in his field of enterprise or activity while maintaining a responsible social concern, will bring the greatest contribution to the total progress of the group, as well as the fullest flowering of the individual.

I should teach American history in terms of its world setting—past history from the views of the people who lived it and foreign relations from an understanding of the national purpose of other peoples—and view all events, realizing the implications of their ever growing planetary interdependence.

I should teach American history in terms of the social, economic, and political trends—past and present. Only by understanding the major movements marking his civilizations will the student be able to solve the vital problems these trends present. In helping my pupils grasp these factors, I will draw on the contributions and data of the other social sciences which enable us to command a more comprehensive view and may act as tools in helping achieve practical results.

I should teach American history in terms of the critical method and the scientific approach. Hope for the democratic system, besides faith in its ideals, lies in rational analysis, sensible con-

clusions, and realistic applications in terms of its values.

I should teach American history in terms of a broad view of subject matter, reaching disciplines even beyond the social studies. My course should contribute to an adequate general education, to basic social skills, and, whenever possible, to efficient vocational practices, all of which are necessary in developing the happy and the good citizen who with his fellow men may attain the golden age of man.

I should teach American history in terms of the rise of the people. It is not in the lives of glittering personalities or dissolute kings and dictators that the key ideals of the American tradition are found. These are revealed, rather, in reporting the response of the freedom loving individual to the challenges which have marked the past.

I should teach American history as an artist who takes pride and joy in his work. This story should live; it should serve a purpose, point out a lesson, and indicate a line of action. It is the teacher in whom all of this centers and the complexities which shape the individual teacher make him the determining factor in education. If the program is to succeed, I should direct the learning activities from a wealth of knowledge and techniques shaped by a pleasing, stable personality.

The writer believes it is within this framework of twelve principles that the keys to the successful teaching of American history in an era of crisis will be found.

## RECENT SUPREME COURT DECISIONS

(Continued from page 256)

It is the special task of teachers to foster those habits of open-mindedness and critical inquiry which alone make for responsible citizens, who, in turn, make possible an enlightened and effective public opinion. Teachers must fulfill their function by precept and practice, by the very atmosphere they generate; they must be exemplars of open-mindedness and free inquiry. They cannot carry out their noble task if the conditions for the practice of a responsible and critical mind are denied to them. They must have the freedom of responsible inquiry, by thought and action, into the meaning of social and economic ideas, into the checkered history of social and economic dogma. They must be free to sift evanescent doctrine, qualified by time and circumstance, from that restless, enduring process of extending the bounds of understanding and wisdom, to assure which the freedom of thought, of speech, of inquiry, of worship are guaranteed by the Con-

stitution of the United States against infraction by National or State Government.

In conclusion, we can well ask: What did this case mean to the seven teachers involved? Having won a victory, what then? A brief news note in *The New York Times*<sup>1</sup> quoted the president of the Oklahoma A. and M. College Chapter of the Association of American University Professors as saying that the teachers would not seek to regain their positions, and that six of them had jobs in other institutions. Apparently, even a legal victory adds to the number of DP's—displaced professors.

<sup>1</sup>December 16, 1952, 38:3.

# From Plenty to Scarcity?

Ray C. Maul

**I**S A shortage of teachers of the social studies at hand? Have conditions really changed since we were told, only a few years ago, that too many graduates were coming from the colleges with preparation for no other occupation than that of teacher of this subject? Need we be apprehensive about the supply of qualified candidates to staff the high school classrooms of tomorrow?

The recently released 1953 national teacher supply and demand report gives affirmative answers to all of these questions. The report backs up, with indisputable facts, the assertion that we are going from plenty to scarcity, and at an accelerating rate. It is this same source that called attention, through the 1948-1951 period, to the disproportionate concentration of intending teachers in the social studies. Now this report shows that changed conditions are just cause for concern. The present corps of teachers may well take cognizance of this reversed trend and its implications for the future. They must, in fact, take positive steps to see that more of the superior high school graduates be encouraged to prepare for the teaching of this subject.

## NEW FACTORS CAST SHADOWS AHEAD

**A** LOOK at the identifiable factors now in operation will bring us up short. Our smug complaisance about having plenty of qualified teachers will be shattered by at least five clearly seen changes—changes which project their influences well into the future, not just temporary expedients. They are (1) the drastic reduction in the number of qualified candidates coming from the colleges and universities; (2) the changing opportunities and demands for college graduates, both voluntary and compulsory; (3) the impending growth in high school enrollments; (4) the growing realization that the

person prepared to teach high school social studies is also the most ready candidate for "conversion" into an elementary school teacher, where the supply cannot conceivably meet the demand for the next decade; (5) the growing realization, on the part of employing superintendents, that many of the graduates coming from the colleges are too highly specialized in one of the subjects comprising the field of social studies and, at the same time, deficient in one or more of the other essential subjects.

## COLLEGE GRADUATES ARE FEWER

**T**HIS point need not be argued. We all know that the "back-to-college" movement after the close of World War II brought not only an enormous crop of freshmen but also sophomores and juniors to the college campuses. This made for a larger proportion of graduates in 1949, 1950, and 1951 to the whole body of college students than we are likely to see again. The number of graduates zoomed sensationally; its precipitate decline was inevitable, even though the total college enrollment fell only modestly.

In 1950 (the all-time high) the colleges turned out 434,000<sup>1</sup> bachelor's degree candidates. The 1953 group will be about 300,000, a drop of 30.7 percent. The 1950 crop of graduates prepared to teach in high school numbered 87,000. In 1953 this group will contain only 55,000, a drop of 36.2 percent. The 1950 group prepared to teach *social studies* numbered more than 15,000, while the anticipated production in 1953 will be only 8,375. This is a drop of fully 45 percent! The table on the next page shows the facts in year-by-year steps, with the two latest crops of social studies teachers divided according to sex.

## OPPORTUNITIES ARE CHANGING

**T**HE post-war employment boom, now at an all-time high, has shown a new kind of demand for the college graduate. Almost everywhere, in all kinds of employment, the preferred

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This extremely interesting analysis of what is happening, and what is about to happen, to the supply of social studies teachers, has been prepared for *Social Education* by the Assistant Director of the Research Division of the National Education Association.

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<sup>1</sup>The figures in this paragraph are rounded to the nearest thousand; see the table on page 262 for exact figures.

TOTAL NUMBER OF COLLEGE GRADUATES, NUMBER PREPARED TO TEACH IN HIGH SCHOOL, NUMBER PREPARED TO TEACH SOCIAL STUDIES, WITH PERCENT OF YEAR-TO-YEAR CHANGE, 1949-1953

Year	1949	1950	1951	1952	1953
Total bachelor's degree graduates	366,634	433,734	384,352	331,942	*
Percent change from previous year	...	+18.3%	-11.4%	-13.6%	...
Total graduates prepared to teach in high school	66,890	86,890	73,015	61,510	55,468
Percent change from previous year	...	+29.9%	-16.0%	-15.8%	-9.8%
Total graduates prepared to teach social studies					
Men	*	*	*	6,341	5,487
Women	*	*	*	3,065	2,888
Total	12,299	15,349	12,178	9,406	8,375
Percent change from previous year	...	+24.8%	-20.7%	-22.8%	-11.0%

\* Information not available.

candidate holds a college degree. This gradual change affects all fields including social science, and tends to decrease the number of eligible candidates who actually seek teaching positions. This expansion of employment opportunities, always subject to the voluntary choice of the individual, makes only a minor impact, however, when compared with the compulsory call to military service.

The long-range welfare of the American school system requires us to assume that international tensions will make necessary the maintenance of a large armed force for an indefinite period. This prior demand for manpower vitally affects the reservoir of supply of men for all types of civilian occupations. It particularly strikes the high school teaching fields of agriculture, industrial arts, and physical and health education, but its reverberations are keenly felt in the social studies. We do not know, from year to year, what percent of the men in a college graduating class will be called immediately, or within a few months, for service in the national defense. We do know, however, that men comprise about 65 percent of the group prepared to teach the social studies. The call to service of, say, one-half of these men would completely upset the supply-demand picture that existed prior to Korea. This one factor alone can quickly change a condition of plenty to one of scarcity. It can and, in fact, is at the point of depleting the supply of men teachers in high school. Unless a compensating movement is set in motion, and soon, the devastating effects upon the schools of the demand for

manpower cannot be measured. It seems appropriate to point out that the only compensation now in view is a vigorous effort to "recapture" these men for teaching after they return to civilian life. There seems to be little evidence, however, that this movement is under way at the present time.

#### WHAT ABOUT HIGH SCHOOL ENROLLMENTS?

TO DATE the high schools have been affected not at all by a change in total number of pupils to be taught, from year to year. In fact, this number has been a little less each year since 1946, until last September. The memory of even the mature teacher does not go back to the time when there were fewer high school students than now. The hubbub which has rocked the boat in the elementary schools since 1947 has not yet extended a ripple into the placid enrollment of the four-year high school; it is only now on the shore of the seventh grade. But by 1955 its hot breath can be felt—and by 1960 it will have engulfed all grades of the high school. It may right now be hard to envision, but during the 1960-1970 decade there will be three high school students where there are now two.

Can the size of your present classes be increased 50 percent without encroaching upon your teaching effectiveness? Each social studies teacher need only ask himself this question to bring home a realization of the meaning of the vast changes in store. The enormous need for more teachers of every subject begins to come into focus.



## SOME TEACHERS ARE CONVERTED

THE "conversion" movement has, fortunately, no relation to the teacher's morals, but it does have an effect upon the reservoir of supply for the teaching of each high school field. In particular, the potential social studies teacher, lacking good opportunities to step right into a high school job in this field, is fair game for quick conversion into an elementary school teacher. The college graduate fitted to teach the social studies already has many of the knowledges, skills, and appreciations which bespeak competence in the grade school situation. Certification officials are found to be indulgent at this point; the requirements beyond college graduation are few, and usually may be satisfied through summer session attendance. Superintendents welcome the degree holder with open arms. Vacancies are so numerous that one may pick the city of his (or her) choice. The "single salary schedule"<sup>2</sup> places the grade school teacher on an immediate parity with the high school teacher.

And the number of these attractive opportunities? They are countless. The elementary schools now have full five million more children than in 1947—and the really big increase is yet to come! More jobs will beckon to the reasonably well prepared teacher just as fast as brand new school buildings can furnish more rooms. Yes, conversion makes an impact upon the reservoir of qualified social studies teachers.

## ARE CANDIDATES REALLY PREPARED?

WITH the close of World War II a vast feeling of restlessness swept American education. In the colleges a redefinition of "general education" was, and is being sought. In the high schools "life adjustment education" is an enticing expression. Be that as it may, the discriminating superintendent is now looking askance at the preparation of many candidates for high school teaching jobs. Nowhere is his eye more critical than when he focuses upon the record of the social studies candidate. For years on end he has been willing to employ the college graduate with a strong, many times top-heavy

concentration in history or political science or sociology or economics or geography. He was willing to try to "make" a social studies teacher out of the candidate whose college record showed no work whatever in one or two or even three of these fields, although many credits may have been stacked up in two or sometimes only one of these integral parts of an indivisible whole. Now the employing officer, seeking to vitalize his "life adjustment" program, readily concedes that full preparation in no one of these subjects can be achieved at the undergraduate level, but he sternly demands that an *integrated approach* be shown in the applicant's record.

Under the searchlight of these requirements the presumed abundance of candidates shrinks appreciably. Even if none of the four other factors mentioned above were in operation, this one alone would shape up the supply-demand situation in new terms. When all of these factors are combined, however, the social studies teacher of today begins to see his job of tomorrow in quite different dimensions.

AT THIS point the reader may well be discouraged. Gloom seems to come from every one of the foregoing paragraphs. The social studies teacher may envision himself (1) engulfed by students in such numbers that his effectiveness will be destroyed, or (2) surrounded by substandard teachers who are brought in because the supply of qualified candidates is exhausted. While each of these threats holds real possibilities, it is not inevitable that either shall come to pass. If the problem ahead is clearly recognized and appreciated, its solution can be found. There is much evidence at hand that the American public is demanding, and is ready to support, a steadily improving educational program. There is much evidence that teaching is pointing up, not down, as a profession. The real force to carry on, however, must spring from the whole body of teachers themselves.<sup>3</sup> There is a part for every professionally minded person. It is "we," not "they," who must show the true possibilities and rewards of teaching to those who would prepare to join us.

<sup>2</sup> The same salary for the same preparation and experience, regardless of the grade taught, kindergarten through grade XII.

<sup>3</sup> For an extended treatise of recruitment suggestions, see Ray C. Maul, "Toward Relieving the Teacher Shortage," *The Educational Forum*, November 1952.

"Teachers have lost more than any other class, unless it be the children of the Nation, who in the end will suffer the most by the demoralization of the teaching profession." (*School and Society*, May 25, 1918. p. 624)

# A Treasure Hunt

Gladys Dearing Lewis

WHEN I transferred from a large urban high school to a smaller institution in the township of Bristol, Maine, I faced many new problems. In place of the large faculty and student body with which I had previously worked, I now found myself one of four regular teachers. A total of about fifty boys and girls made up the student body, and I found that I was expected to teach all the English offered in a four-year high school, as well as all the foreign languages. Naturally, the number of preparations was difficult. But most trying of all was the job of finding material that would interest all age levels. "Why not," I asked myself, "find something that will interest all four grades and every class in the school?"

One day, in my sophomore class, a boy mentioned with great pride that our community pre-dated the Pilgrims.

"Do you know, Mrs. Lewis, that the Pilgrims sent to Pemaquid for supplies, and that there was already a settlement here when the Pilgrims landed in Plymouth?" he asked. Other boys and girls started to tell me other stories of the community. At last, here was a subject in which everyone was interested. I was interested too. I wanted to learn more.

"Why not have a treasurer hunt?" I suggested, as much for my benefit as theirs. As I met each class that day, I found equal enthusiasm for the rich history of the community. I asked each class to do some research and bring in a true story of the locality.

"Ask your mothers and fathers," I suggested, "your aunts, uncles, and especially your grandparents, for any information they may have—any old stories or facts of interest."

The result was amazing. Papers yellowed with age; pictures from old albums; information long forgotten and rescued from attics, found their

way to my desk. Each pupil vied with the next to tell the story of his ancestor and what he had contributed to the history and general welfare of the town. I found the town overflowing with stories of the past and the time when Bristol was the center of activity for a sea-loving people of the coast. It was rich in history, and the pupils revelled in their heritage.

"This is all very well," I pointed out, "but what of the future of this town?" I suggested that they write an essay on the subject, "If I Should Go to Sleep and Wake Up Twenty-five Years from Now, What Would I Like to See in My Home Town?"

The results were most interesting. The main item wanted by all pupils was a gymnasium, for in this small township school no building was available for athletics. The boys and girls were very conscious of this lack and had already begun talking about a fund for the purpose of acquiring a building at a later date.

Other wishes included better recreation for younger children, better stores, television, autos for all, better roads throughout the town, and so forth.

The essays were the basis for a down-to-earth discussion period.

"All your suggestions are good," I said, "but we must be practical. How is our town to have these things? How is a town to grow? People must earn more money in order to pay the town more taxes if they are to enjoy the things you ask for. What do you suggest?"

It was enlightening to hear their comments. Different industries were discussed which might make their home in Bristol. After discarding a great many suggestions, one boy came forth with this idea.

"I think our best bet as a town is to develop our summer trade. We have the climate and the natural beauty, and if we have good places for summer people to stay and good restaurants where they may eat, they will come and spend their money here."

"Aw, why cater to them?" another boy grumbled. "We got along all right before they ever came and we can again."

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The pupils of Bristol High School in Maine wanted a gymnasium. This is the story of what they did to get the taxpayers interested. The author, who directed the project here described, teaches English and foreign languages in the high school.

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AT THIS point, the value of the summer people to our economic welfare was discussed. A lobsterman's son pointed out that fishermen had a better market and received higher prices for their fish. Another boy told how his father had developed a better market for his vegetables.

"He sold them all to summer cottagers," he said, "and didn't have to truck them all the way to Bath or Rockland."

The girls were very strong in their belief that more summer trade would mean more money for the town. "I banked over \$500 last summer by waiting on table," announced one senior.

"Well," I commented, "what can we as a school do to attract the tourist to Bristol and to persuade him to spend his money here?"

"Tell him what we have," suggested one student. This created a good deal of thought. One boy came up with the idea that we should make a book and tell the history of the place. "Oh, that's too dry," said another boy. "We like it because we know the place, but summer people wouldn't care for it."

"Of course they would." "People like history." Questions and comments flew thick and fast.

"Why not write just the interesting stories," I suggested, "and put a directory of all the town business in the back of the book. I spent half of the summer last year just answering questions such as, 'Where is the nearest drug store? Where can I get a haircut? Where can I rent a boat? Why not put all that into a book?'"

Conversation waxed hot. "That would cost a lot to print." "It costs money to print anything." "So what, we can sell ads and get some money that way for the gym fund." "Sure, sell ads. The businessmen will be glad to buy ads in our book."

I interrupted the discussion. "I think that the thing to do is to find out how much a booklet of this type will cost." One of the girls whose father is a printer volunteered to find out.

Her report the next day was discouraging. "It would cost us at least \$350."

"Gee," said one of the more pessimistic, "we can't do that." Gloom settled on the group. But young enthusiasm was not to be quenched.

"We can do it if we sell ads enough."

"But what if we don't sell a single copy and are stuck with all those books?"

"We'll sell them all right," the students said.

#### WE WRITE A BOOK

THEN the actual work began. Excitement ran high. I put the proposition to all my classes. Everybody wanted to get in on the act!

The freshmen chose to make the directory part of the book and to list the business and phone numbers. The sophomores chose the organizations of the town and the various activities they sponsored such as the churches, the schools and a short history of each. The juniors chose the writing of the historical stories, although in the end we made a competition of that and opened it to all classes. The seniors handled the business.

In truth, the entire school went "directory crazy." The typewriting classes prepared the manuscript for the printer. The woodworking class made the racks in which the books might be displayed in various stores and gift shops in town. We have no art department, and the printer suggested that line sketches would be less expensive than other pictures.

The cover itself caused a great deal of thought. The one chosen was a picture of the high school surrounded by small sketches of eight parts of the town, thus giving the idea of the town as a community with the high school as the center.

The project took longer than originally planned and the booklets were not received from the printer until July.

Several of the students had volunteered to take the books to the various stores during the summer vacation, and true to their word, were on hand to deliver the finished articles when they arrived at my house one hot July day.

It was a bit disconcerting to find that our printer's first estimate was low and the actual bill was more than we had expected.

The end is justifying the beginning, however. Our booklet sells for one dollar. It has been very well received. The summer people have enjoyed it and have complimented us. It has proved a source of pleasure as well as a source of help to them during their vacation months. Best of all, we have covered expenses and our gymnasium fund has been increased by over \$250 to date.<sup>1</sup> We are still selling books and expect to do so for many summers to come.

The boy who was afraid we wouldn't sell a single copy is satisfied, and each one looks at the book with pride. More than once I have seen a student opening *Inside Bristol* and pointing with pride to "my" article in "our" book.

<sup>1</sup> During the two years following the start of this project, the entire community has gone "all out" for the gymnasium. Summer carnivals, winter dramatics, food sales, and other activities have swelled the coffer. In the spring of 1952, a town meeting voted overwhelmingly to support the expansion of Bristol High School, including the building of a real community gymnasium.

# Problems and American History

Jay Williams

ONE of the legacies left to teachers by John Dewey is the idea that the student who is being successfully educated is solving problems. The strengths of this view are patent to most teachers. It rests on realistic grounds both in respect to the kind of life the student will live in our society and in respect to the nature of learning. Our society is undeniably not one where choices can be made and policies decided simply upon the basis of habit and tradition. Habit and tradition exist and will continue, but the educated man today must be more than their servant: he must understand them, be able to evaluate them and in some instances modify them. He must, in short, be able to think intelligently about social problems. As to the nature of learning, it is plain that people learn when they are challenged. They can be challenged by many things, including fear, but the most productive challenge is a problem. Problems appeal to one's curiosity, and facts and ideas discovered under their impetus do not terminate learning, but are a step in a continuing process.

There are two reservations which are frequently made concerning the primacy of problems for education. Both of these reservations identify important factors in education and should not be dismissed. But rather than impugning the importance of the problem-concept of education, they do, in fact, only help us think through the question of how it may be effectively applied. The first of these reservations is often voiced as, "What happens to subject matter?" The answer to this is that subject matters typically are not to be found between the covers of textbooks. The subject matter of the social sciences consists of the information, values, and ideas relating to men's actions and institutions. This subject matter has resulted from the identification and attempted solution of problems, and is in turn the ground for further problems. It

is very much alive; very much the center of peoples' concerns. To present subject matter to the students, therefore, as a mass of warmed-over conclusions of other people's inquiries is as intellectually dishonest as it is educationally fruitless.

The second reservation deals with the kind of problem which the student is asked to confront. Many teachers have reacted against the problem concept because it is associated in their minds only with certain "activist" views. They concede the usefulness of students' figuring out for themselves how to run a civilized lunch room, but they are under no illusions that all, or very much, of politics can be grasped on the basis of this model. But problems of the immediate environment, though indispensable for young students and frequently useful as starting points for older students, do not exhaust the area of even practical problems. "Real" problems may be remote geographically or chronologically, and the most real (in the sense of basic) problems are undoubtedly the most abstract. There has been no more real problem for Americans than whether or not the Declaration of Independence was to apply to Negroes. But where is the locus of this problem? It is everywhere and nowhere.

Thus the problem concept does not dismiss subject matter. Problems are problems *about* subject matter. Nor does the problem concept imply that *any* problem is educative. The educative problem is the problem which carries the student to a new level of achievement. What the proper new level of achievement is can be understood only by the teacher who knows both the student and the subject matter well.

IF THIS can be said about the usefulness of problems in education, what may be said about how problems are in fact used in the teaching of American History? They are conspicuous by their absence in the great majority of secondary courses. The representative student of American history is focusing his attention on mastering the statements of textbooks, and, in some cases, supplementary sources, and summarizing these statements in class, in papers, or on examinations.

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The author of this article has taught American history in both junior and senior high schools, and is at present assistant professor of the social sciences at The College, University of Chicago.

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The cause of this practice is not hard to identify: It is the prevailing view of American history as a course of study. American history in the high school is believed to be properly a condensed and simplified form of American history in the college. History instruction in the college is, with few exceptions, conducted on principles borrowed (with some distortion) from continental (largely German) institutions of higher learning. Among the most important of these principles are those defining the subject matter and the relation to this subject matter and to one another of the student and the teacher. Subject matter is, in this definition, a body of knowledge discovered by scholars. The teacher is a scholar whose function in the lecture hall is to pass on to the student what he knows. The student's function is to be a receptacle. He must first master the fundamentals, the "facts." After he has done this he can safely be allowed to think about problems. The happy place where this will occur seems constantly to recede. The high school teacher has a firm belief that there is such a place in college, or at least in some colleges. The college teacher knows that it exists in graduate school. There are, of course, graduate seminars, but here the aspirant will be told that his problem must be "manageable," and this often means that it must be a problem which no one has yet judged sufficiently significant to merit inquiry.

#### TOWARD BETTER PRACTICES

THERE is a constantly increasing number of high school teachers of American history who have rejected these confining definitions of American history. They realize that there must be wonder before there is learning, questions before answers, ideas along with facts. But in their attempt to transform the study of American history from a memory exercise into an exploration of ideas and society they are faced with a number of obstacles. Many of these, such as class size, the reading level of students, students' prior indoctrination against history, or any form of study, are general school problems. But an obstacle specific to the American history teacher has been that of materials. There are, of course, increasing numbers of audio-visual aids, pamphlets, supplementary reading lists, all useful for certain types of teaching. But the American history textbook has necessarily remained the center of the course since there has been nothing to take its place. Now these books do not raise problems. They do not attempt to. Their task

is to tell what happened. They sometimes ask questions such as, "Why did the Articles of Confederation fail?" But it is they and not the student who supplies the answers.

This is not an argument for the elimination of the textbook in courses which are oriented toward problems. Good textbooks are indispensable; they supply the narrative background against which problems must be placed; they are a mine of related information and they should give the student some analytical tools. In short, they are necessary adjuncts to materials which the student can take up as problems. These materials are the arguments, plans, explanations and deliberations of the actors and contemporary observers in history. There have been for several years now a variety of collections of such materials (for example, *The Shaping of the American Tradition* and *The People Shall Judge*) but these have been published at prices beyond the means of many students. Now, however, thanks to the imagination and enterprise of The New American Library, we have two books (at thirty-five cents apiece) which supply us with a fair sampling of these materials: *A Documentary History of the United States*, edited by Richard D. Heffner, and *America in Perspective*, edited by Henry Steele Commager.

HOW might these books be used to educate students to think critically about historical problems? The papers in the *Documentary History* are concerned with some crucial issues in American public policy. These papers are themselves first-rate explorations of problems. Through them the student can be challenged by several kinds of questions. He can be asked to decide on his own whether or not the Declaration of Independence is "propaganda," and if so if it is "good" propaganda; whether or not the Constitution, in itself and as exhibited by *Federalist No. 10*, is a "conservative" document and in what respects. He can be asked to identify the difference in ideas and view of the facts which lead Carnegie and Wilson to such divergent interpretations of "individualism," John Marshall and Jackson to conflicting notions of the function of the Supreme Court, and Hamilton and Jefferson to disagreement over the Constitution. The student can be asked to judge himself, as Americans before him have been asked to judge, the merits of the presentation of facts, the principles and the solutions offered in these papers. Again, the student can be asked to apply

(Concluded on page 270)

# Using Graphs

Kenneth A. Fuller

**T**EACHERS who have employed graphic representation in the classroom realize the need for definite instruction in the use and the interpretation of graphs.<sup>1</sup> They understand that this type of tool, which combines social studies information and mathematical skills, can be an aid to the pupil's growth in understanding and to the skills involved in quantitative thinking.

Newspapers and magazines as well as texts include considerable data presented graphically. Some federal and state agencies rely on this type of illustration to clarify government facts and figures. In their published reports local school boards utilize this means to inform the public of significant and statistical data.

Without a knowledge of the rudiments of graphic presentation, pupils may easily misinterpret figures. Skills used in selecting information and in drawing conclusions—important factors in the development of critical thinking—are involved in the interpretation of graphs.

## DIFFERENCES AND DIFFICULTIES

**A**S PUPILS show very large individual differences within the same class and within the same grade in the same school, it is impossible to say what level of a particular graph skill should be reached by the average pupil.<sup>2</sup> Upon reaching the seventh grade, most pupils should have a command of the fundamental specific skills necessary in reading simple graphs.

Basic skills in social studies as well as in other subject areas are built up over a period of years and have to be used constantly so that they may be maintained. Some pupils are able to develop a skill far ahead of that attained by other members in their class or in their grade. In using standardized tests<sup>3</sup> a teacher has a sound basis for measuring individual progress. Locally constructed tests with definite purposes provide

another source for gathering pertinent diagnostic information.

Various factors which determine the degree of pupil success in reading graphs are: the type and complexity of the graph; a pupil's interest in using the graph; his desire to master the language and symbolism of graphs; his mental ability; his reading ability; and the teaching method used.

A complex piece of symbolism incapable of teaching itself requires selection for specific rather than general purposes. Reference to or exhibition of a graph is not teaching with and from it because mere looking will probably not give much information. Unless one definitely understands a device, he cannot use it effectively.

To the social studies teacher, pupil understanding of graphs is more significant than the construction of graphs.<sup>4</sup> Even though it is reasonable to assume that pupils trained in the making of graphs will gain more than those who merely study them, the time required to construct them is too great. However, superior pupils are able to make graphs related to class work.

## PURPOSES OF GRAPHS AND THEIR SELECTION

**V**ARIOUS functions are served by graphs. To indicate progress or growth over a particular period of time is one common purpose of graphs. Frequently used are those which compare two or more similar things, either by showing rank or by showing relative values of total amounts. In most cases graphs represent succes-

<sup>1</sup> Various connotations are given to the term "graph." In this article, the discussion of graphic representation is limited to the bar, line, circle, and pictorial graphs.

<sup>2</sup> For an excellent discussion on this point, see Chapter 12, "Providing for Individual Differences in Teaching Study Skills," by Horace T. Morse, *Fifteenth Yearbook of the National Council for the Social Studies*, 1944, p. 92.

<sup>3</sup> Very helpful are tests such as *Iowa Every-Pupil Tests of Basic Skills*, Part V of Test B—Work Study Skills, advanced for Grades 6-8 (New Edition), Boston, Mass.; Houghton Mifflin Co., and J. Wayne Wrightstone, *Cooperative Test of Social Studies Abilities*, New York: Cooperative Test Service.

<sup>4</sup> The opposite viewpoint is presented by Harris Harvill, Chapter 18, "The Use of Posters, Cartoons, and Graphs," *Eighteenth Yearbook of the National Council for the Social Studies*, 1947, p. 109.

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The author of this article, for some time curriculum coordinator in the public schools of Lockport, New York, is now principal of Lockport's North Park elementary and junior high school.

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sive values of a changing quantity or the relative values of two or more like quantities.

Care is required in the selection of graphs. Whatever graph best emphasizes the important data under discussion should be chosen. More careful choices with regard to the content of the graphs to be studied may motivate the pupil's interest and make more genuine his work. No rules can be made in determining time intervals for the treatment of graphic materials nor in selecting those to be used for a specific purpose.

Whether the graph is pupil-made, teacher-made, or secured from commercial sources, there are several points common to good graphs which the junior high school teacher should examine.

- Does the graph have a title which is complete and clearly stated?
- Is the title placed conspicuously above or below the graph?
- Does the graph emphasize one main type of data?
- Is the graph simple and not overcrowded?
- Do you understand the graph yourself?
- Is the graph as large as possible?
- Are the scales on a bar or line graph arranged so that an increase is represented by a rising line and a decrease by a dropping line?
- Does a bar or line graph include a zero line? If it does not, is the omission indicated?
- Are the legend or symbols easily understood?
- Is the graph accurate and up-to-date?
- Is the graph the best one you can find for your purpose?
- Does the graph indicate the source of the data?
- Can the graph be adapted to the abilities of your pupils?

An obstacle to effective learning has been over-graded materials which the teacher may not have thoroughly understood, or with which she expected definitely superior results. Although tools such as graphs require varied degrees of specific skills and are used for instructional purposes, they are not necessarily ends in themselves. The teacher will be better able to select and adapt this type of visual material if she is aware of the thirteen points listed above.

#### MATERIALS AND METHODS

WITH an abundance of graph sources, there should be little difficulty in gathering a sufficient number from which to make careful selection. Commercial publications, newspapers, current event sheets or magazines, textbooks, encyclopedias, and workbooks provide graphic materials useful in the social studies classes.

When interested, pupils will bring to the classroom graphs which are pertinent to the topic

under discussion. If no use or recognition is accorded these contributions, these voluntary efforts may dwindle to nothing.

Graphs from newspapers which have been submitted by the pupils may be pasted on the back of used cardboard posters or may be posted on the bulletin board. Under each individual graph may be written a few questions. When a particular graph has been designated in advance for a discussion, a pupil, before class, may want to reproduce it in enlarged form on the blackboard. An opaque projector offers an excellent means for presenting such materials to the class.

In addition to the teacher's keeping an individual file of graphs with other visual aids, she may include graphs in her unit or topical tests for the pupils. Duplicating processes allow for tracing and copying of simple graphs which does not take much of a teacher's time.

Able pupils may wish to construct graphs as projects for extra work or a teacher may assign superior pupils to construct desired visual materials. A bar graph is most easily made by pupils. Although the line graph is an accurate form for representation of quantitative data, it is difficult for junior high school pupils to make. Percentage, proportion, or ratio required for circle and pictorial graphs increase the complexity and difficulty of construction. In any case, the objective is not to provide busy work for the better and willing pupils but rather to have another medium for developing growth in understanding of social studies materials.

Orientation at the beginning of the seventh grade for pupils entering a junior high school for the first time may well include the use of a teacher-made bar graph on the blackboard with such a title as "Number of Boys and Girls in Our Grade, 1953." Completion of this simple graph will direct attention to the importance of a title and will bring out points about an appropriate scale. Superior pupils who employ the skills involved in finding required percentages and in constructing and measuring angles are able to make a circle graph based on similar data.

Seventh-grade pupils in New York State when becoming acquainted with their school and the local community may be interested in gathering assigned information which can be set in graph form and kept for reference by the teacher. In learning about the school, the number of home-rooms on each floor, the number in various school clubs, and other subjects are possible for use in graph construction.

Whether the graph is commercially produced, pupil or teacher made, the ultimate goal in its reading is the ability to use the graph. Asking "Which important facts does the graph tell you?" "What conclusion can you reach?" reveals interesting points in the learning situation.

Value of graphs to the junior high school pupils will be determined by the importance of the facts presented and the pupils' ability to read them. Slower pupils should know the fundamental rudiments of simple graphic interpretation, and the superior pupils should have a grasp of the more involved skills necessary for reading more complex graphs.

#### CONCLUSION

**S**Ocial studies teachers do not assume sole or complete responsibility for the teaching of basic skills. Although we recognize the necessity for aiding in the development and maintenance of such a skill as the ability to read graphs, the mathematics, reading, science, and general business classes should not be overlooked as other areas for aid. Correlated projects provide oppor-

tunities for joint effort with other subject fields. Generalization pertinent in the adaptation of graph materials for their use in junior high school are: Relative or comparative facts can be presented to the pupils in the form which is economical in the space required, in use as a basic skill device, and in time required for its discussion. The teacher should make careful selection of graphs to be used in order to focus attention on a particular area of social studies content. The inability to accomplish some objectives in the social studies is affected by deficiencies in the basic skills which include graphic interpretation. The process of acquiring such skills is a gradual and continuous one, and the skills must be used so they will be maintained. Supplementary assignments, class activity, group work, projects, individual guidance, the correct and efficient use of local and standardized tests—all have their place in a diagnostic, remedial, and evaluation program. Efficient reading and understanding of graphic materials forms another basic aid in the development of an intelligent and responsible citizen.

#### PROBLEMS AND AMERICAN HISTORY

(Continued from page 267)

to contemporary problems the principles which have been used and debated in the past.

*Americans in Perspective* contains papers which describe and analyse the manners, customs, and beliefs of Americans through a range of some one hundred and fifty years and from points of view as diverse as Crevecoeur's, Tocqueville's, Dickens', Mathew Arnold's and Dennis Brogan's. This book can be used to confront the student with a somewhat different set of problems. Since each of these essays contain a critique of American society, it should be asked, what are the values of the authors? Why does each find, for example, equality, material goods, optimism, or great activity good or bad? Are their values acceptable to the students? Would the students like to live in a society modeled by such ideas? Are the authors' characterizations accurate, for the time they were written, for the present? What are the implication for public policy of the judgments which follow these questions?

The broad sweep of the problems dealt with in these two books would allow the teacher to make them the center of a course, using an ap-

propriate American history textbook concurrently. Or a teacher might use them experimentally for certain units. But the possible advantage of these books will be missed if they are confined to a "supplementary reading" status. The problems which these books take up can emerge only if the students discuss them as a group with their own texts in front of them.

**A**N EFFORT has been made here to argue that problems should be central to the teaching of American history and that the means now exist whereby interested teachers may achieve this end. It has been shown, I believe, that a teacher who confronts his students with appropriate problems is not neglecting subject matter but rather, in fact, introducing his students to it. The subject matter of the social studies is the actions and institutions of men. The American past is a storehouse of reflection and debate on these. It is reasonable, then, to expect that a program calculated to introduce students to the problems of society and methods of thinking about these would use such resources.



# Notes and News

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## 33rd Annual Meeting—Buffalo November 26-28, 1953

The thirty-third Annual Meeting of the National Council for the Social Studies will be held in Buffalo, New York, November 26-28, 1953. The Hotel Statler will serve as convention headquarters and will house all meetings and the educational exhibit. All social studies teachers, administrators, and others interested are cordially invited to attend this meeting.

The National Council of Geography Teachers will hold its Annual Meeting jointly with the NCSS in Buffalo with all sessions in the Hotel Statler. The Middle States Council for the Social Studies will also hold its Annual Fall Meeting jointly with the NCSS in Buffalo. The NCSS welcomes the members of these groups to the meeting, and all attending will find the program and activities enriched by the contributions of these groups.

Dorothy McClure Fraser, City College of New York, and first Vice-President of the NCSS, is serving as Program Chairman. Henry J. Warman of Clark University, President of the NCGT, is in charge of the program for the geography teachers. A varied and stimulating program has been planned that will be of interest to social studies teachers of all grade levels and of special subject matter areas.

Frank J. Dressler, supervisor of social studies in the Buffalo public schools, is chairman of the Local Arrangements Committee. He and his committee are hard at work.

Write directly to the Hotel Statler for your room reservation, stating in your letter that you plan to attend the thirty-third Annual Meeting of the National Council for the Social Studies.

## Three NCSS Past Presidents in New Positions

Howard E. Wilson, president of the NCSS in 1934 and formerly secretary of the NCSS from 1936 through 1939, has been appointed Secretary of the Educational Policies Commission of the National Education Association and the American Association of School Administrators. Dr. Wilson takes over the position formerly held by William G. Carr who is now Executive Secre-

tary of the National Education Association.

I. James Quillen, president of the NCSS in 1944, has been appointed Dean of the School of Education at Stanford University. He has been a frequent contributor to NCSS publications including *Social Education*, Yearbooks, and the Curriculum Series.

W. Linwood Chase, president of the NCSS in 1947, has been appointed Dean of the School of Education at Boston University where he was formerly a member of the faculty. Dr. Chase was editor of the NCSS publication *Wartime Social Studies in the Elementary Schools* and has contributed to other National Council publications.

## West Suburban Council

The West Suburban Council for the Social Studies (Illinois) met in Riverside on April 15. The topic for discussion was the NCSS 23d Yearbook *The Teacher of the Social Studies*. The discussion was led by Norman Kaiser of the Riverside-Brookfield High School and Belle Prater from the Ogden School in LaGrange. Lorraine Hawley of Downers Grove served as recorder.

J.B.R.

## Central Washington

The Wapato Public School System played host to the Spring Conference of the Central Washington Council for the Social Studies on April 18. Ray Carr, vice-president, of Ellensburg, assumed office as president and presided in the absence of Roy Bryson of Yakima who, because of illness, had been unable to undertake the responsibilities of the presidency to which he was elected last fall. Treasurer of the organization, Miss Pat Keim of Wenatchee, was also unable to attend because of illness. Consequently, Zelma Sutton of Wapato discharged Miss Keim's responsibilities as well as her own heavy duties as Secretary and general coordinator of the Conference.

The program for the morning session consisted of a short coffee hour to greet incoming delegates, a business meeting, a panel discussion devoted to a critical examination of the social studies subjects taught at various grade levels in the public schools of Central Washington, a map exhibit, and a presentation and exhibit of

National Council publications. Members of the panel were Betty Piland of Wapato, Jack Burnell of Ellensburg, Kenneth McCauley of Toppenish, Orville Boyington of Sunnyside, and H. J. Kramer, Wapato's Superintendent of Schools.

The program for the afternoon session consisted of a luncheon followed by an interesting and extensive exhibit of projects, ideas, murals, maps and other materials worked out in the social studies classes of the schools in Wapato and elsewhere. Following a period to view the exhibit delegates met for the final event of the Conference—an address on the topic "The Humanities in the Teaching of Social Studies" by Edward Erickson, Superintendent of Schools, Ellensburg. M. K.

### Arkansas

The Arkansas Council for the Social Studies has taken an active part in the Arkansas Experiment in Teacher Education, financed by the Fund for the Advancement of Education of the Ford Foundation. Ophelia Fisher, Arkansas State Teachers College, has served as chairman (as well as president of the ACSS) of a state committee to determine the competencies needed by social studies teachers, to recommend changes in teacher training for social studies, and to recommend changes in certification laws for teachers of social studies. The committee is composed of ACSS members, most of whom are also members of the NCSS. It held a workshop in May with Jack Allen, George Peabody College for Teachers and editor of the NCSS Yearbook *The Teacher of the Social Studies*, serving as consultant. A.J.G.

### Texas

The February and May 1953 issues of *The Social Studies Texan*, the official bulletin of the Texas Council for the Social Studies, give many accounts of the activities of the state council and the local councils in that state.

The Board of Directors of TCSS has outlined a number of projects that are planned to expand the activities of TCSS. Some of the proposed projects are: (1) to set up a statewide committee to aid and strengthen local councils and to assist in the organization of new local groups; (2) to explore the possibility of inaugurating a series of state-wide conferences for social studies teachers (the first of these was held at San Marcos during the summer of 1953); (3) to plan some way for the Texas Council to undertake a study

to determine the status of social studies teachers in Texas and the nature and extent of the offerings in the social studies program in the state; and (4) to request the board member from each district to ask the executive board of his district of the TSTA to entertain a resolution requesting the Texas State Teachers Association to give \$100 toward the expenses of the district and the state social studies section meetings.

At the suggestion of the Texas Council, Alicia Tilley is undertaking a study of the status of the social studies curriculum in the accredited schools of Texas. Miss Tilley will work at the University of Texas under the direction of Thelma Bollman.

Texas now is the state with the second largest membership in the National Council for the Social Studies. They are continuing to work hard to hold that position through active programs and work at the state and local level.

L. B.—J. E. D.—A. M. du P.

### Southern Pennsylvania

The Southern Pennsylvania Council for the Social Studies held its spring conference on May 2 at the State Teachers College at Millersville. The theme for the meeting was "More Effective Teaching of the Social Studies in the Junior and Senior High School." At the opening general session, Norman F. Trattner, president of SPCSS presided. Sanders P. McComsey of the College extended greetings and Ralph W. Cordier spoke for the Pennsylvania State Council for the Social Studies. The senior high school discussion group was chaired by Robert D. Fidler, vice-president, SPCSS, and Florence O. Benjamin, Chester High School, served as discussion leader. William H. Reindel, vice-president, SPCSS, chaired the junior high school discussion group and Ralph Cordier, State Teachers College at Indiana, led the discussion. The luncheon meeting chaired by Norman F. Trattner, was addressed by Willard E. Goslin, George Peabody College for Teachers. C. M. M.

### Iowa

The Iowa Council for the Social Studies held a workshop on March 21 at Drake University. The purpose of the workshop was to acquaint the officers and committee members of the Council with each other and the work of the committees. The general session in the morning was addressed by Roy Jennings of the Iowa State Education Association on "Public Activities of

the ICSS Within the Framework of the State Education Association." The afternoon session consisted of committee meetings and a general session at which the committees reported to the rest of the group. Plans were made to make this workshop an annual event.

The Des Moines Council met for a dinner meeting on March 26. Sarah Page, president, chaired the meeting at which John H. Haefner, President of the NCSS, spoke.

Social Studies teachers of the Central District, ISEA, held their annual business meeting on April 11 in Newton. Officers elected were Harold Cassady, Des Moines, chairman; Vera Martin, Boone, vice-chairman; and Helen McCord, Ames, secretary. The meeting was addressed by Nicholas Nyaradi, Budapest, Hungary, now at Bradley University. He spoke on "American Education on the Crossroads of History." A. E. S.

### Northeast Missouri

The Annual Spring Meeting of the Northeast Missouri Council for the Social Studies was held March 21 at the Northeast Missouri State College in Kirksville. David Waggoner, vice-president of the Council, presided at the opening session and Lucy Simmons of the College welcomed the group. High school teachers of the region joined in a panel discussion on "Problems in the Teaching of World History in the Secondary Schools." The luncheon session was a joint meeting of the Northeast Missouri English and Social Studies Councils. Henry McClintock, president of the social studies council, presided at the afternoon Round Table Discussion on "A Comparison of Education Systems Through the Eyes of Foreign Students." Students for Korea, Turkey, and the Philippines participated.

P. D. K.

### North Carolina

The North Carolina Council for the Social Studies met in Asheville on March 27 with Mrs. Tom Cameron presiding. High school pupils from the Lee Edwards School presented several musical numbers. William H. Cartwright, Duke University, spoke on "What Is Happening in the Social Studies." J. R. Skretting and Nell E. Stinson spoke on the importance of state and national council membership. At the business meeting, officers were elected as follows: Cora Lancaster, Washington, president; Robert E. Woodside, Crossnor, vice-president; and Nell E. Stinson, Raleigh, acting secretary.

The North Carolina Council held a summer conference in New York at the United Nations which was directed by Carlton C. Jenkins.

A group of social studies teachers met in Raleigh on May 12 to organize the Raleigh-Wake County Social Studies Council. Mary Sue Fonville and Nell Stinson presided at the meeting. The following officers were elected: Mary B. Hoy, president; Mrs. Maurice Clayton, vice-president; and Lynn C. Kerbaugh, secretary-treasurer. Miss Hoy appointed a committee to draft a constitution and plans were made for a fall meeting of the new council.

N. E. S. and M. S. F.

### Kit of Material on Destructive Criticism of the Public Schools

We have received a good many requests for information concerning individuals and organized groups that have been making destructive criticism of public education. To meet these requests we have joined with three other NEA Departments in making available to our members an information kit of materials about these agencies. Prepared by the NEA Commission for the Defense of Democracy Through Education, the kit contains approximately twenty-five items, including such things as the American Legion's constructive proposal for evaluation of instructional materials, and reprints like "Who's Trying to Ruin Our Schools?" (McCall's Magazine), "The Public School Crisis" (Saturday Review of Literature), "What To Do About 'Dangerous' Textbooks" (Commentary), "Scarsdale's Battle of the Books" (Robert Shaplen), and other pertinent publications.

Order from the National Council for the Social Studies, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N.W., Washington 6, D.C. (Price \$1.50).

All social studies teachers and social studies organizations are invited to send in material for these columns. Send in notes on the activities of your school or organization and other items of general interest to social studies teachers. Mail your material as early as possible to Merrill F. Hartshorn, Executive Secretary, National Council for the Social Studies, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N.W., Washington 6, D.C. Contributors to this issue: Julia E. Darnall, Anna Marie duPerier, Lottie Burr, Arthur E. Soderlind, Amy Jean Greene, J. B. Royse, Nell E. Stinson, Mary Sue Fonville, C. Maxwell Myers, Pauline D. Knobbs, and Max Klingbeil.

# Pamphlets and Government Publications

Manson Van B. Jennings

Perhaps the most persistent suggestion to come from our readers during the past year has been that we give more attention to free materials. Unfortunately, printing and other costs have risen to such an extent that free materials are far less abundant than they were a few years ago. Even such organizations as the Chamber of Commerce and labor unions that once distributed free materials quite liberally are now having to put a price tag on most of their publications. Nevertheless, many pamphlets can still be obtained without cost.

In the February and March issues (1953) we offered some suggestions in this column for building a pamphlets collection and included some hints for acquiring free materials. To test the validity of our suggestions a small group of students, who had heretofore had no experience in collecting pamphlet materials, followed our advice, wrote several letters, and within a couple of weeks found their mail boxes flooded with useful materials that could be had for the asking.

We, too, have written some letters, addressed primarily to the public relations or educational departments of large corporations which sent us numerous samples of their publications for review. Generally, single copies of such materials are available free of charge to teachers who make their requests using school letter heads.

## Materials from Industry

Industrial publications are particularly helpful for topics dealing with the history and organization of the particular corporation or industry, and with its products, services and technology. They may also be concerned with a great variety of other subjects such as employment opportunities, the American free enterprise system, and a multitude of other topics that may often seem of marginal interest to the sponsoring industry. Their materials may include films, filmstrips, and recordings as well as printed materials.

Typical of the materials from industry are those published by RCA. Mr. L. V. Hollweck, Manager of the Educational Division, RCA Victor Division of the Radio Corporation of America (Camden 2, New Jersey), writes that his

"company issues various types of instructional and informative literature . . . available in single copies to teachers and instructors, only." The samples he forwarded for review include *RCA: What It Is—What It Does* (1952. 52 p.), *30 Years of Pioneering and Progress in Radio and Television* (1949. 79 p.), and *What's the Right Word . . . a Dictionary of Common and Uncommon Terms in Radio-Television-Electronics* (1952. 50 p.). Of these, the last is of marginal value to social studies teachers, though core and science teachers might find it quite useful, while any mechanically minded youngster interested in electronics would be very much interested in its definitions and illustrations. The other two titles, well organized and carefully illustrated, present an excellent picture of the widespread activities of RCA and its significant contributions to the radio-television industry. In fact, *30 Years of Pioneering and Progress* is virtually a history of radio and television.

From Mr. D. R. James of the American Iron and Steel Institute (350 Fifth Avenue, New York 1) we learn of half a dozen items available in quantity upon request:

*Steel—From Mine to You*, a diagram of principal iron and steelmaking operations, suitable for bulletin-board use.

*Major Steps in Steelmaking*, another diagram of steel-making operations also suitable for bulletin-board use.

*The Picture Story of Steel* (1952. 56 p.), a well illustrated, non-technical description of steelmaking in elementary terms. This pamphlet traces the making of steel from the raw materials to the finished product, and concludes with attention to the uses of steel and selected facts about the steel industry.

*The Making of Steel* (1951. 96 p.), a booklet that goes into considerable technical detail on the manufacture of steel and its products. This is not to be recommended for the junior high school level or for students not having some background in science and an interest in technology. Again, the illustrations and diagrams are excellent.

*Steel Serves the Farmer* (n.d. 26 p.), a profusely illustrated pamphlet suitable for use with secondary-school students.

*Steel Facts*, an eight-page information bulletin about current affairs in iron and steel, issued six times yearly.

These publications of the Iron and Steel Institute focus in large part on the products and technology of the industry, and while social studies teachers may feel that technological processes may well be left to science classes, they



should find at least a handful of students in each class very much interested in technology; certainly an understanding of technological processes can contribute a great deal to an understanding and appreciation of the impact of science and technology upon society, with its resultant social problems, the solution of which constitutes an imperative challenge to social scientists and citizens in general.

Perhaps no corporation has made available a finer set of booklets suitable for school use than Du Pont, which was founded in 1802 and is unquestionably an industrial giant in the field of chemical technology. Mr. James K. Hunt, Public Relations Department of E. I. Du Pont de Nemours & Company (Wilmington 98, Delaware), sent us seven booklets which are available free of charge as long as the supply lasts:

*This Is Du Pont* (1952. 52 p.) is replete with innumerable fine photographs, charts, and statistical tables, designed to tell the story of Du Pont's extensive activities in production and research, its products, its organization, and its history.

*The Story of Research* (1951. 28 p.) draws attention to the role of industrial research in the Du Pont organization. Photographs and drawings, coupled with a minimum of textural material, graphically portray the extensive investment in research and the returns on that investment, for without giving increasing attention to research Du Pont would long since have surrendered its pre-eminence in the field of chemical technology to its competitors.

*The Story of Duco Finishes* (1950. 20 p.), *The Story of Cellophane* (1952. 24 p.), and *Man-Made Fibers* (1951. 32 p.) are self-explanatory titles of booklets that should fascinate many of our students.

*The Story of the Builders* (n.d. 32 p.) is the story of the building of modern industrial plants, with special attention to improvements in technology that make our plants more productive and technically more efficient. Particularly significant are the sections dealing with the development of automatic controls and the virtual achievement in some instances of the automatic factory, a development that in the foreseeable future may effect a revolution in the productive process.

Finally, *The Story of Safety* (n.d. 28 p.) in Du Pont plants reveals the little publicized story of intensive efforts to reduce accidents in modern industrial plants. This is a matter of vital importance to workers and an essential factor in the conservation of our human resources.

All of the Du Pont materials reviewed here are published with a most attractive format and are so well illustrated that they should prove meaningful and interesting to all readers.

These are a few samples of materials we have received from industry. As you will find when reading them, they represent one form of direct or indirect advertising and the money for their publication undoubtedly comes from the public-relations budget. Of course, the point of view reflected in these publications is quite favor-

able to the sponsoring corporation and to the American free enterprise system in general. Nevertheless, they contribute a wealth of information and represent a point of view our students should understand. Certainly, they give a picture of American technological development which at its best has contributed immeasurably to our standard of living and has been emulated by industries all over the world.

## Subscription Materials

Though this is not the time of the year when budgets for classroom expenditures are approved, there may still be some funds available not earmarked for specific purposes. It may not be too inappropriate, then, to mention a few of the more worth while materials that can be purchased on a subscription basis.

Now in its third year, the Center for Information on America at Washington, Connecticut, continues to publish its four-page *Future Voters Discussion Guide*, each issue of which is devoted to a different subject and is published monthly from September through May. A yearly subscription for each of the nine issues costs \$1, but for five or more subscriptions sent to the same school the cost is only 50 cents for each set of nine issues. At this writing, we have no information on the topics to be treated in the fall, but an indication of the timeliness of these discussion guides can be seen in the topics considered toward the end of the last school year: "Should Hawaii Be Admitted to Statehood?" "Whose Oil?" and "Immigration: 'Whom Shall We Welcome?'" It might be mentioned in passing that last year's October issue received an American Heritage Foundation award for being the best among 15,000 entries in the 1952 National Non-Partisan Register and Vote Competition sponsored by the Foundation.

*Platform*, prepared by the Club Bureau of *Newsweek* magazine (152 West 42nd Street, New York 36), is another form of discussion guide published monthly from September through May. Designed for older students and adults, and including 22 pages of textual and illustrative material, this discussion guide is distributed free to a limited number of club officers, educators, speakers and civic leaders. For others, the subscription price is \$2 per year or individual copies may be purchased at 25 cents each; and a sample copy will be mailed upon request. Each issue is devoted to a different topic and "offers a pro and con discussion of today's most controversial

issues. . . ." At the end of each issue is a bibliography of books and pamphlets as well as magazine and newspaper articles that are particularly pertinent to the topic.

The University of Chicago Round Table continues to be available to the listening and reading public. The record of each Round Table broadcast, together with a short article related to the subject of discussion, is published in pamphlet form and may be ordered individually at 10 cents per copy, or by annual subscription at \$3 for the 52 issues. The timeliness of these broadcasts is indicated by the three latest issues we have received at this writing: *The Child in Today's Culture* (June 14, 1953), *What Is American Capitalism?* (June 28, 1953), *Book Burning and Censorship* (July 5, 1953).

*International Conciliation*, published by the Carnegie Endowment for International Peace, has long been one of the least expensive, yet one of the more useful of periodicals for social studies teachers. Their headquarters have recently been moved to United Nations Plaza at 46th Street, New York 17, and beginning with the September issue *International Conciliation* will have a new format, will be longer, will include more illustrations, and will be issued five times yearly, with an extra issue for the year 1953-54. Single subscriptions will cost \$1 per year or \$2.50 for three years. We have not yet seen the new format, but the subjects announced for the year 1953-54 are "Issues Before the Eighth General Assembly," "Korea," "Libya," "The French Union," "The United Nations Secretariat," and "UNESCO."

The Foreign Policy Association (22 East 38th Street, New York 16), in which regular membership costs \$6 a year (\$3.50 for students), distributes to its members the *Headline Series* and the *Foreign Policy Bulletin*, the latter being issued twice each month. The *Headline Series* is a series of pamphlets approximately 60 pages in length published generally on alternate months and selling individually at 35 cents a copy. Each issue is devoted to a separate topic such as *What the Arabs Think* (No. 96), *Europe's Quest for Unity* (No. 97), *The Emergence of Modern Egypt* (No. 98), and *Where Is China Going?* (No. 99). The bimonthly eight-page *Bulletin* may be subscribed to separately for \$4 a year or may be purchased at 20 cents per issue, each of which has an appropriate lead article and possibly half a dozen lesser articles.

Finally, in this section on subscription materials, we might do well to mention the Public Affairs Pamphlets (22 East 38th Street, New

York 16) which may be purchased at 25 cents each or may be subscribed to at the rate of \$2.50 for 12 issues or \$4 for 24 issues. Titles recently released and not heretofore mentioned in this column begin with *No Work Today! The Plight of America's Migrants* (No. 190), the first to be published under the new 28-page format. Other releases are: *Democracy Begins in the Home* (No. 192), *Washing Our Water: Your Job and Mine* (No. 193), *Let's Work Together in Community Service* (No. 194), *Trade—and Aid* (No. 195), *Mental Health—Everybody's Business* (No. 196), *Doing Something for the Disabled* (No. 197), and *Stepmothers Can Be Nice!* (No. 198).

### Government Publications

For many years the yearbooks of the United States Department of Agriculture have supplied a wealth of information at modest cost. Though the latest of these, the 1953 yearbook on *Plant Diseases* (Supt. of Documents, U. S. Government Printing Office, Washington 25: 1953. 992 p. \$2.50) is likely to have limited usefulness to students of the social sciences, we note that the 1940 yearbook, *Farmers in a Changing World* (U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington 25: 1940. 1,215 p. \$1.50), is still in print. It includes an excellent history of agriculture in the United States, as well as a detailed account of New Deal agricultural policies, and should continue to prove useful in American history classes. Also of possible value is the 1947 yearbook, *Science in Farming* (1947. 944 p. \$2.25).

Less ambitious are the new yearbooks of the Department of Labor. *The Workers' Story 1913-1953* (U. S. Government Printing Office, Washington 25: 1953. 143 p. 45 cents) reviews the achievements and progress of the American worker during the past 40 years, and gives some attention to the development of the Department of Labor since its creation in 1913. The material is well organized, well written, and nicely illustrated. In the back pages are a summary of important dates in the history of labor since 1903 and a listing of significant publications of the Department of Labor, including some free items.

The Missouri Basin Inter-Agency Committee has published an attractive and useful study of *The Missouri River Basin Development Program* (Government Printing Office, Washington 25: 1952. 48 p. 25 cents). The nature and scope of the program involving the cooperation of ten states and numerous agencies of the Federal government are outlined.

# Sight and Sound in Social Studies

William H. Hartley

## THE AMERICAN REVOLUTION

### INTRODUCTION

This list of audio-visual materials relating to the Revolutionary War was prepared in cooperation with, and at the request of, the National Park Service of the United States Department of the Interior. The list will serve as a guide to superintendents of national historical parks and monuments who wish to obtain material to use in orienting visitors to the background and significance of the place being visited. It is printed here in the hope that it may prove useful to social studies teachers seeking material on this phase of history.

This list was prepared by a special sub-committee of the Audio-Visual Committee of the National Council for the Social Studies. The section on records was done by William G. Tyrrell of the Division of Archives and History, New York State Department of Education. The filmstrips were reviewed by Henry Borger of Clark University, and the motion picture list was compiled by William H. Hartley, State Teachers College, Towson, Maryland.

### MOTION PICTURES ON THE AMERICAN REVOLUTION

Academic Film Co., 516 Fifth Ave., New York 18.

*Lafayette, Champion of Liberty.* 10 minutes; rental, \$2. This film shows the motives which brought the Marquis de Lafayette to America and depicts scenes during the Revolutionary War in which he served as an aide to General Washington.

*Our Declaration of Independence.* 20 minutes; rental, \$5. Shows how the colonists began to rebel against England after the French and Indian wars. Pictures the reaction against the Stamp Tax and includes sequences on the Boston Tea Party, the opening of hostilities, and the events leading up to the signing of the Declaration of Independence.

Encyclopaedia Britannica Films, Inc., Wilmette, Illinois.

*Thomas Jefferson.* 17 minutes; rental, \$5. This is a biographical film which traces the career of Jefferson. It shows his role during the Revolution and goes on to show how he became President of the United States. Of special importance to us here is the sequence which shows his part in bringing about the Declaration of Independence.

*Benjamin Franklin.* 17 minutes; rental, \$5. This film traces Franklin's career from his days as an apprentice printer to the period of the height of his statesmanship. The episode of most importance to us in this study is that showing his work in Europe during the Revolutionary War.

Teaching Films Custodians, 25 West 43rd St., New York 36. (The following films are leased on a long term basis from this address. Write to the above address for the nearest rental source.)

*Boston Tea Party.* 10 minutes. Largely through scenes of statues and places this film shows the Virginia House of Burgesses, Liberty Bell, Concord Bridge, Lexington, Fort Ticonderoga, Bunker Hill and other places connected with the American Revolution.

*Declaration of Independence.* 19 minutes; color. Shows the events leading up to the Declaration, including the work of Tom Paine, the division of opinion among the colonists, the abuses of the Quartering Act. Then a scene laid in Independence Hall shows the motion for independence, the preparation of the document, the vote and Caesar Rodney's ride to arrive in time to swing the vote for Independence.

*Drums Along the Mohawk.* 31 minutes. (Edited from the 20th Century-Fox feature film of the same title.) A picture of the frontiersman and the part he played in the Revolution. Gives a good picture of a frontier settlement in New York state and shows how the group met an Indian attack led by a Tory.

*Give Me Liberty.* 21 minutes. The scene is laid in St. John's church in Virginia where Patrick Henry delivers his famous speech. The events leading up to the speech are told and the feeling of the times gets across well.

*Sons of Liberty.* 20 minutes; color. This film shows the part played by Haym Salomon in helping to finance the Revolutionary War. The work of the Sons of Liberty organization is shown and a stirring scene of Salomon addressing a group in a synagogue is included.

*Land of Liberty, Part I, Colonial Period to 1805.* 20 minutes. This is the first part of a four-part film which tells the history of the United States in scenes taken from feature films. This film shows early colonial life, the causes of the war and the main events of the war.

*Winning Our Independence.* 34 minutes. (From the Columbia feature film "The Howards of Virginia.") Mat Howard takes his new bride to live on the frontier plantation. He builds it into a fine home and then leaves it to fight in the cause of freedom. He is shown at Valley Forge, and he gives a stirring speech to his bride on the reason why men must fight for the things they hold dear.

Virginia State Department of Education, Film Production Service, Richmond 16, Virginia.

*Jefferson of Monticello.* 18 minutes; color; rental, \$8. A travel film to the places connected with the life of our third President, including William and Mary College,

Williamsburg, Richmond, and the University of Virginia. Also includes a complete tour of his home at Monticello.

*Patrick Henry of Virginia*. 16 minutes; color; rental, \$8. Reenacts the life of the famous Revolutionary statesman. Includes the "give me liberty" speech.

Yale University Press Film Service, 386 Fourth Ave., New York 16.

*Chronicles of America Photoplays*. 36 minutes each; rental, \$6. This is a series of silent films made in the middle twenties. They are still useful for elementary school pupils, but their age and silent technique make them seem passé to older students. Titles dealing with this period are, "Declaration of Independence," "Eve of the Revolution," "Frontier Woman," "Vincennes," "Yorktown."

#### FILMSTRIPS ON THE AMERICAN REVOLUTION

American Jewish Archives, Clifton Ave., Cincinnati 20, Ohio.

*The Story of Haym Salomon*. 31 frames; color; guide; \$6. Clear, colorful drawings tell simple story of one man's contribution to success of Revolution and to religious freedom in Pennsylvania. Good biographical strip for elementary grades (middle and junior high).

Eye Gate House, Inc., 2716 41st Ave., Long Island City 1, New York.

*Union Against Britain*. (Building New Nation Series) 25 frames; color; \$4. Chronologically develops political and economic backgrounds from French and Indian War to Lexington and Concord. Balanced treatment is fair to British. Good for elementary grades.

Film Research Associates, 150 East 52nd St., New York 22.

*The New Jersey Campaigns*. (Visual History of the American Revolution Series) 40 frames; guide; \$4. Of value for specialized consideration of military events in middle states, aided by good maps. No titles or text frames. Photos of rivers of little help. Junior, senior high.

Heritage Filmstrips, Inc., 89-11 63rd Drive., Rego Park 74, New York.

*The American Revolution*. 48 frames; guide; \$3.50. 1765-1783 political treatment with most time spent in causes of Revolution. Little on military. Maps good. Junior high.

*Causes of the American Revolution*. 44 frames; guide; \$3.50. Organized around five causes of conflict with slightly anti-British bias. Questions stimulate interest at start. Good diagrams. Many text frames. Junior high.

Informative Classroom Picture Publishers, Grand Rapids 2, Michigan.

*A Nation is Born*. (Story of America Series) 67 frames; \$3.95. Covers from causes of American Revolution through War of 1812, giving most emphasis to early section. Sequence at times questionable. Organization could be better. Can be used with flat pictures published by same company. Junior and senior high.

Life Filmstrips, 9 Rockefeller Plaza, New York 20, New York.

*The American Revolution*. 62 frames; color; guide; \$6. Excellent chronological treatment of political and military events from background of Revolution to establishment of federal government. Contemporary drawings and paintings used effectively. Color at times a bit confusing. Senior high.

Society for Visual Education, 1345 W. Diversey Parkway, Chicago 14, Illinois.

*The American Revolution*. (History of American People Series) 63 frames; \$3.25. Political and military events before and during the Revolution. Maps fair. Text frames alternate with pictures so can be used in double-frame projector. Junior and senior high school.

Top Films (M. C. Cooper) Box 3, Preuss Station, Los Angeles 35, California.

*Declaration of Independence*. 39 frames; color; guide; \$5.75. Drawings, with touch of humor, effectively paraphrase Declaration into simple language. A cut-down version of *We Told the World*. Junior and senior high.

*The Seal of the U. S.* 43 frames; color; guide; \$5.75. Unusual strip traces history of the seal, explains its symbols and phrases, and shows its uses. Heraldry and old world backgrounds are suggested. Junior and senior high.

*We Told the World: The Story of Our Declaration of Independence*. Series of 3 strips; 105 frames; color; guide; \$16.50. Answers questions of what was in Declaration and why it was important then and now. Good for detailed study. Unnecessary repetition of frames. Only real advantage over shorter version is section on the document today. Junior, senior high.

Yale University Press Film Service, 386 Fourth Ave., New York 16.

*Patriots and Minute Men*. (Pageant of America Filmstrip) 40 frames; guide; \$7. The causes and opening events of the Revolutionary War are shown in a series of contemporary illustrations with minute attention to historical accuracy.

*The Thirteen Colonies Win Independence*. (Pageant of America Filmstrip) 40 frames; guide; \$7. The events of the Revolutionary war are traced through pictures largely taken from the Pageant of America series of illustrated reference books on American History, edited by Ralph Henry Gabriel.

Young America Films, Inc., 18 East 41st St., New York 17.

*Boston Tea Party*. (Children of Early America Series) 44 frames; color; guide; \$6. Imaginative story of 12-year old Nat who helps his father in dangerous work of printing and distributing handbills for Sam Adams and who participates in the Tea Party. Middle grades.

*The Last Delegate*. (Children of Early America Series) 45 frames; color; guide; \$6. Imaginative story of 12-year old Tom McNair, who summons Caesar Rodney to make famous ride to cast Delaware's deciding vote to make unanimous the Declaration of Independence. Philadelphia and Ben Franklin become more real for the middle grades.



## RECORDINGS ON THE AMERICAN REVOLUTION

## DRAMATIZATIONS

Audio Visual Division, Popular Science Publishing Co., 353 Fourth Ave., New York 10.

Three "Teach-O-Disks" from a series on *Our American Heritage*. Each record is a 12-inch, 78 rpm disc, priced at \$3 per record.

*Patrick Henry, Parts I and II, Patrick Henry, Part III and Paul Revere, Part I and Paul Revere, Parts II and III* dramatize the roles played by these historic figures during the American Revolution.

The recordings are interesting and effective for use in grades above the sixth. The production is not so polished as might be desired.

Enrichment Materials, 246 Fifth Ave., New York 1. Each title is available in a set of two 10-inch records at 78 rpm, priced at \$2.80 per set; or one 10-inch long-playing, 33 $\frac{1}{3}$  rpm, record, combining the two titles, priced at \$3.56 per record.

*Our Independence and the Constitution* is an account of the progress of the Second Continental Congress and the reading of the Declaration of Independence. The Action is resumed later with the convening of the Constitutional Convention.

*Paul Revere and the Minute Men* relates Revere's life as a youngster to the time of the movement for independence, with some details on the Boston Tea Party and his famous ride of warning.

Dramatized from the popular Landmark Books (New York: Random House), these records have been prepared with the assistance of a distinguished group of educators. They are most useful in the upper elementary and junior high school years.

National Association of Secondary School Principals, 1201 16th St., N.W., Washington 6, D.C.

*Benedict Arnold* is a re-enactment of Arnold's life leading up to his deal with André to transfer West Point, followed by his flight to England.

Four transcriptions of *Cavalcade of America* radio programs. Size A; three 12-inch records per broadcast; 78 rpm; \$8 per set. Size B; one 16-inch record per broadcast; 33 $\frac{1}{3}$  rpm; \$6 per record.

*Dr. Franklin Goes to Court* is an account of Benjamin Franklin's important negotiations for recognition of the American cause by the French government.

*Thomas Paine* dramatizes many events in Paine's life with emphasis on his contributions to independence.

*Valley Forge* depicts the bitter months endured by Washington and his troops in the winter of 1777-1778.

These dramatizations are presented by professional actors, with well-known stars in the leading roles. The scripts were prepared under the supervision of a scholarly historian. The well-produced programs should be useful in any presentation of the subjects, from the junior high through the senior high grades and in college.

SONGS AND MUSIC<sup>1</sup>

Encyclopaedia Britannica Films, Inc., 1150 Wilmette, Illinois (and regional distributors).

*Songs of the Revolution*. Album II of *Historic America in Song*. Five 12-inch, 78 rpm records; \$10.95 for the volume.

The 21 songs and ballads sung by Burl Ives in this collection provide a musical view of brave deeds and patriotic expressions as well as some humorous comments on the war. The material consists of examples that were currently popular during the war years and also songs that were inspired by events of the revolution and which have become part of the musical tradition. The singing is straightforward and appealing. The brief spoken introductions, however, are not sufficiently informative by themselves. By careful selection, there is material here that is useful to all grade levels.

Gloria Chandler Recordings, Inc., 422 $\frac{1}{2}$  West 46th St., New York 19.

*Adventures in Folk Songs*. Four 12-inch long-playing records, 33 $\frac{1}{3}$  rpm, each with four programs, priced at \$6.85 per record.

*The Land Fights for Freedom and Let Freedom Ring*, programs on records one and two, consist of narrative descriptions of the historic subject, interspersed with the appropriate, authentic songs. The presentations are entirely by women and would probably have their greatest use in the elementary and junior high grades.

DOCUMENTS AND LITERATURE<sup>2</sup>

Columbia Records, Inc., 1473 Barnum Ave., Bridgeport 8, Connecticut.

*Our American Heritage*, Volume II of *Masterpieces of Literature*, Album E-6; two 10-inch records.

*The Declaration of Independence and Washington's Farewell Address* (Excerpts) are read here by Wesley Addy. These readings can be used to supplement study of the actual document in the middle and upper school years.

Decca Records, Inc., 50 West 57th St., New York 19.

*Our Common Heritage*. Decca Album A-536, 10-inch, 78 rpm records. Emerson's *Concord Hymn*, Longfellow's *Paul Revere's Ride*, and Pierpont's *Warren's Address to the American Soldiers* are given dramatic readings by well-known performers. These recordings have their greatest use in integrated literature-history courses on the high school level.

<sup>1</sup>Also of importance, but out-of-issue, are the following: Victor P-11, *Ballads of the American Revolution and War of 1812*; Keynote K-102, *Early American Ballads*; and Bost ES-1, *The Songs of Early America*. The first two titles, in particular, feature group singing that is more effective and authentic than solo performances. Copies of the record can be duplicated by concerns performing this service; one such firm is The Record Loft, 189 West 10th St., New York 14.

<sup>2</sup>An important collection of excerpts from addresses, letters, and other documents by George Washington as read by Orson Welles is of considerable value in senior high school and college courses. These five 12-inch 78 rpm recordings were produced by the Radio Division of the Biow Company, 640 Fifth Ave., New York City, for radio station WNEW, for a Washington's Birthday broadcast in 1941.

# Book Reviews

**THIS GOVERNMENT OF OURS.** By Jack Allen and Fremont P. Wirth. New York: American Book Company, 1953. 600 p. \$3.48.

In these days of witch hunts and other attempts to infringe upon freedom of thought, it is nearly impossible to write a good high school textbook in the field of civics. An author either includes a few words or sentences which might be interpreted as "un-American," and thus is condemned as a Communist, or he is apt to produce a book so weak that it is useless for the teaching of the basic premises of democracy. Allen and Wirth have seemingly avoided both of these pitfalls, and in so doing have produced a well-documented and well-written textbook.

Three units of the book are somewhat out of the ordinary as far as civics books are concerned, thereby giving it a "new look." These topics are, "America's Democratic Heritage," "American Government and the General Welfare," and "The United States and Its World Relations." A conscious attempt to correlate these units with history, literature, and art is always in evidence. It is indeed refreshing to see something added to the typical "local, state, and federal" sequence.

The authors are to be commended for the general framework of the book. They have employed short but meaningful sentences and well-organized paragraphs throughout. The study and discussion hints at the end of each chapter should prove very helpful to both students and teachers. The attempts to correlate the material with other areas of the curriculum and with community resources in citizenship education is another creditable feature. The reference material in the appendix is also a valuable addition to this textbook.

Most civics textbooks have a traditional pattern, and this one is no exception. In spite of the fact that the material is divided into units, the primary emphasis is on chapter organization. It is true that a unit preview is common throughout, but no further attempt is made to unify the chapters. Such features as suggested unit activities, unit reading and unit summaries would have added to the book's usefulness. While most of the pictures, charts, and graphs are well-done, a few of the charts are so small that they cannot be read easily (i.e. "Wards," page 313). Descriptive bibliographies, with specific page ref-

erences, would have added to the motivation potential of the book. For example, to send a student to Commager's *Documents of American History* or to Stubb and Gosnell's *Select Readings in American Government*, without mentioning page numbers, is like asking him to find the needle in the proverbial haystack. Likewise, some of the suggested individual activities are so academic in nature as to frighten even the best student in the class. It is doubtful, for example, that a high school student would willingly "Read Lynd and Lynd's *Middletown* and report on it in class."

Allen and Wirth have done a laudable piece of work, and the above paragraph is not so much a condemnation of them as it is of the authors of most civics textbooks. The present volume is a fine step toward the type of reading which should stimulate real interest in a vital area of the curriculum.

ELMER J. CLARK

Indiana State Teachers College  
Terre Haute, Indiana

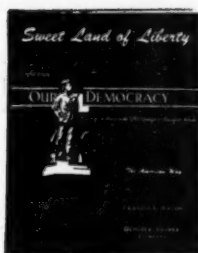
**THE VOLUNTEER WORK CAMP: A PSYCHOLOGICAL EVALUATION.** By Henry W. Riecken. Cambridge, Mass.: Addison-Wesley Press, Inc., 1952. xviii + 262 p. \$3.50.

Volunteer work camps came into existence after World War I to furnish opportunities for working cooperatively wherever there was a great need. They are democratically organized and serve to stimulate interest in service-minded vocations, to reduce racial and religious prejudices, to provide an outlet for youthful idealism, to give opportunities to work with rather than for people, and to help in the formulation of personal philosophies of life.

The American Friends Service Committee, under whose auspices many work camps have been held both here and abroad, has undertaken an evaluative study to determine the extent to which the objectives of the work camps have been achieved. This study has been carried out by the use of accepted psychological criteria with a full realization that many of the intangible values cannot be measured adequately. The results of this evaluation are interesting and significant.

The value of a study of this kind is to call attention to an experiment which is helping to

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develop a constructive attitude toward some of the baffling problems of modern times. It should also be noted that the work camp is a partial answer to the desire of youth to do something constructive and that it is making a significant contribution to vital democratic education. Social studies teachers will find this to be a stimulating book.

WALTER H. MOHR

George School

●  
PARLIAMENTARY GOVERNMENT IN THE COMMONWEALTH. A SYMPOSIUM. Edited by Sydney D. Bailey. New York: Philosophical Library, 1952. 217 p. \$4.50.

For a people who inspired its birth, Americans are singularly ignorant about the fine political mosaic that is the British Commonwealth. We know too little about its member states, their political and social pioneering, and—most important of all—the pattern of inter-governmental cooperation that has been engineered in these decades of destruction. *Parliamentary Government in the Commonwealth*, a symposium, while originally addressed to a British public, contains rewarding information and cause for reflection for any American.

For one thing, the book leaves little doubt as to the importance of the British spirit, with its emphasis on tolerance, discussion, persuasion, and compromise. How that spirit infused the political heart and brain of the parliamentary systems of the Commonwealth, for peoples as heterogeneous as Indians and Ceylonese, Canadians and Australians, is the repeated refrain of the chapters. Why the new Oriental states chose Western models, specifically British, is a question well answered by one of the authors.

If there is any criticism to offer, it is mainly in the failure of the writers to recognize fully

the liberal contributions which American institutions have made to Dominion constitutions. While the British spirit has thrived in a flexible, if amorphous, constitution, all members of the Commonwealth have, in the American manner, detailed their political institutions in a written constitution. Australia and India (and to some extent Canada) have gone one step farther in our direction and made the written constitution paramount, with a Supreme Court mandated for interpretive purposes. Where a federal structure exists (again, Canada, India, and Australia), our influence is most obvious, for under this framework a functioning upper house is needed, in addition to the further use of a Supreme Court as arbiter for the inevitable power conflicts.

We do not imply that our models must necessarily be imitated. In fact, the danger of copying institutions where there is little need or historical reason should be obvious. Canada, for instance, does not quite know what to do with its upper house. New Zealand actually abolished this division in 1950. Australia has witnessed many attempts at abolition of its bi-cameral system. Yet, in spite of universal condemnation by political scientists (outside of the federal sphere), political man seems to want to cling to this legislative appendage. Southern Rhodesia, for instance, is today contemplating a political addition to its unicameral structure!

Even in the case where there is an apparent need for a federal framework, Pakistan is an instance where the pattern of "1787" is recognized as being neither a blueprint nor a mold. Pakistan's unique problems centered in an Islamic frame of reference have caused its leaders to focus their attention on developing an entirely new type of federalism.

If our federal structure has earned praise for its encouragement of local experiments, the Commonwealth members also should be commended for their attempts to try new methods. Democracy, with its tremendous problems centering around such factors as a mass electorate, the ever present danger from undemocratic minorities, bureaucratic tendencies, the growth of state power, executive functions and administrative discretion, is constantly in need of safeguards to protect its traditional values and liberties. What have the Dominions contributed to this problem?

Australia, of course, pioneered compulsory voting. (There is a separate chapter devoted to this innovation.) Unfortunately, however, with almost thirty years of practice behind it, compulsory voting has not, in the opinion of experts,



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contributed seriously to the electorate's political education: in fact, it may even have discouraged it! To those who are looking for specific "effects" and "results" one way or the other from this method of getting out the vote, the Australian practice, so far, reveals little.

New Zealand and Australia have both experimented with the broadcasting of debates from the national parliaments. Both report success, with large listening audiences and willing legislators. (Perhaps we are headed for a similar arrangement through the back door of committee investigation broadcasts and televised sessions.)

More serious, and still to be worked out, is the proposed constitution for a British Caribbean Federation. If the Commonwealth succeeds in uniting the dependent islands of the West Indies under a combination of federalism and cabinet government, it may well provide a model for the Pacific island groups. And in this world of large-power domination, it could even mark the way for the smaller non-island powers to cooperate.

There are many other facets which may concern the reader, such as the contrast of dominion and mother-country methods of handling question time, finances, etc., and the differences existing between the older and newer dominions.

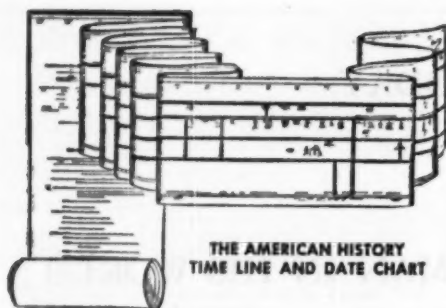
But perhaps the greatest impression one may obtain will be an increased awareness of a changing Commonwealth. India, one of the latest and most different members, at once illustrates the new conception of the Crown as a symbol of association rather than allegiance; of a Commonwealth which, like the Northwest Ordinance, makes the new the equal of the old; and, lastly, of the increasingly closer connections with that successful rebel, the United States.

ALBERT ALEXANDER

Brooklyn Technical High School

●  
RENDEZVOUS WITH DESTINY: A HISTORY OF MODERN AMERICAN REFORM. By Eric F. Goldman. New York: Alfred A. Knopf, 1952. xi + 503 p. \$5.00.

Considerable attention has been paid to American reform in recent years, but it would be difficult to find a single-volume work that matches the job which Professor Eric F. Goldman has done in *Rendezvous With Destiny*. His effort "is a history . . . the story of the wise and the short-sighted, the bold and the timid . . . human beings" who have made modern American reform.



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Although any study of this large subject must consider the term "liberal," the author offers no concise definition. He does, however, present various groups of people who must be included in the category of "liberals" or "reformers" in recent American history. Political reformers (Goldman says) include all types of individuals.

*Rendezvous With Destiny* is two books in one. It is an intellectual history—a revelation of the climate of ideas behind the reform movement—and it is a political history, or the political expression of these ideas. Among the ideas are those of Darwin, Marx, George, Veblen, Croly, Dewey ("the Herbert Spencer of Reform Darwinism"), Beard, Darrow, Brandeis, Holmes, Keynes, La Follette, and the editors of the *New Republic*. On the other hand, there are the liberal political expressions of Tilden ("leader of liberals of the Seventies"), Grover Cleveland ("a liberal's liberal"), Theodore Roosevelt, Wilson, Hoover, and Franklin Roosevelt. The title of the book might well have been "Rendezvous With Dilemma" for, as Mr. Goldman traces the reform movement in its efforts to adjust political machinery to a changing industrial society, he finds it inevitably confronted by two philosophical difficulties implicit in Reform Darwinism—the justifica-

tion of a means by an end, and relativism to which Liberal Darwinism was prone to succumb when wrestling with the modern emphasis on the importance of economic thought. Butressing these two basic dilemmas were others: Did not complete Jeffersonianism, or individualism, lead to Fascism? If trusts were to be employed for the public good, how could you prevent monopoly? And if you fought for racial, nationality, or religious minority rights, how could you sidestep racial nationalism and minority chauvinism?

Despite these dilemma-stalked paths, the reform movement was not always fraught with frustration. In its development since 1873, Goldman shows that modern American reform established two fundamentals indelibly on the public. These were the belief that governments, especially federal, should interfere to protect and advance the standard of living of the more depressed groups, and the argument that the United States should actively participate in international collective security.

In his presentation the author uses the unusual term "patrician reformer" to characterize such figures as Theodore Roosevelt, Charles Bonaparte, Oliver Wendell Holmes, and Franklin Roosevelt thus further underscoring his point

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that the reform movement included a generous sprinkling of the aristocracy. Other forces affecting reform are given considerable treatment but it seems to the reviewer that Mr. Goldman has underestimated the influence of a minority of extremists who claimed a part of the reform effort and only succeeded in discrediting while the "patricians" gave it respectability.

The reader who is searching for a facile definition of a "liberal" or "progressive" will not find it in this volume. But if he is interested in following the current of ideas behind modern American reform, in becoming better acquainted with the men who politically applied them, he will find the story expertly told. In addition the evidence is carefully footnoted without detracting from the reader's continuity. It is a book which would add much to any college course in recent American history and could be used to advantage at the secondary level, too.

RICHARD G. SHERMAN

Bloom Township High School  
Chicago Heights, Illinois

TEACHING FOR BETTER SCHOOLS. By Kimball Wiles. New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1952. 397 p. \$4.00.

This is a good book for reading by those who

pride themselves that they have never had a course in "education" and for those who had such inadequate courses in this area that they wish that they had not had any at all. It is also a book which should be read by those who have long been satisfied with the teaching techniques and principles which they learned some fifteen or twenty years ago.

In reviewing this book, the writer was reminded of a book with a similar title which was his "bible" during his first teaching. The marked contrast in approach shows that those who concern themselves with the improvement of teaching have not stood still during these last few years.

Wiles, who is now at the College of Education, University of Florida, says that the foundation for this book came during his own first year of teaching. His sixth-grade class in science finished their textbook two months before school closed. Since he presumed that his mission for the year had been completed, he took his class for a walk through the woods and fields. One thing led to another and "the class began a more intensive study of how the world was formed than I had ever experienced in high school or college." This "opened (my) eyes to the difference between the learning that occurs when pupils do assignments

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and when they work on some project or problem they have deemed important enough to tackle. Never again could I be complacent about making an assignment. Since that time I have been seeking to learn how to work with pupils so that they will have real purpose, as a result of having established it themselves."

This book is, then, a summary of what the author has learned during the ensuing years. Stress is placed on the fundamental ways of creating the environment in which learning can occur most effectively. Teaching is considered as the process of assisting boys and girls (and men and women) to conduct their learning rather than to have their activities directed.

The book is easy to read since it is not only filled with sound practical ideas but is generously spiced with anecdotes. The approach is fresh. It is generously spattered with stick-men cartoons which skillfully get across the author's main points. (For example, one shows the distinction between marking and evaluation. On the marking side the teacher is saying to the pupil "You are worth a 'D'"; on the evaluation side the teacher is showing the pupil a comprehensive record of his work and asking "What improvements are needed?")

Had this reviewer written it he would have searched (perhaps in vain) for a better title. The emphasis is more than on "better schools"; it is on better schools in a democratic society charged with building democratic citizens, it is on human relations and applied psychology. This would, in fact, make an excellent text for a course in human relations in a school of education.

While social studies teachers will find many stimulating ideas for improving their teaching throughout the book, they will find particularly helpful and stimulating the first chapter and Appendix A. In the chapter, learning is defined in terms of modern knowledge and implications for teaching are spelled out. In the appendix, significant research on learning and human relations is drawn together and summarized.

ROBERT BAYLESS NORRIS

Lehigh University

UNITED NATIONS. By Dorothy Sterling. New York: Doubleday and Company, 1953. 80 p. \$2.50.

This small book on the headquarters of the United Nations in New York City should be on the shelves of every school library in the United



States. In pictorial form it presents the work of the U. N.—and the pictures are really excellent. The textual material adds a great deal to the illustrations, but many students can gain an intimate view of the U. N. activities even though they cannot cope with the reading matter.

The book opens with an account of the way in which the new U. N. headquarters was built. Then it takes the reader on a sight-seeing trip behind the scenes, including the garage, the mailing room, the section which plans the meetings, the radio and newspaper offices, and out to the United Nations school at Lake Success.

This is the first volume which does a thorough job on the U. N. headquarters. It is a superb summary.

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Brooklyn College  
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